MARKETIZATION IN THE LANGUAGE OF UK UNIVERSITY RECRUITMENT: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND CORPUS COMPARISON OF UNIVERSITY AND FINANCE INDUSTRY JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the marketization of universities' recruitment discourse, using critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistic methodology. To do so, university and financial job advertisements were compared synchronically and diachronically. Synchronic corpus linguistic analyses were carried out on 3,000 online academic and 3,000 financial job advertisements from the present day. In addition, 60 university and financial job advertisements from newspaper in the 1970s were analysed manually and served as a basis for the diachronic comparison. The corpus linguistic methods were used for two analyses: (1) evaluative adjectives collocating with organizational reference terms; and (2) the identification of lexical bundles. The close reading of data involved the analysis of move structure and an investigation of the representation of employer organizations and applicants in the four data sets.

The results indicate that while 1970s university and financial job advertisements are strikingly different, 2010 university job advertisements are fundamentally aligned with those from businesses. While financial job advertisements almost always seek to establish the credentials of the employer, this move is rare in 1970s university job advertisements but occurs in the majority of 2010 university job advertisements. Regarding the representation of organizations and applicants, while in 1970s university job advertisements universities are rarely mentioned, universities in 2010 are construed as performing activities that are inherently promotional. Applicants in 2010 university job advertisements are construed as more equal to institutions in terms of power relation and as benefiting from the job. These trends are similar to what is found in financial job advertisements. The evaluative adjectives in university and financial job advertisements are largely similar. Analysis of lexical bundles

suggests that business oriented discourse and ideologies have become conventionalized in the phraseology of university job advertisements. However, in all of the analyses, it is found that universities do not always adopt business discursive practices. This thesis argues that universities can resist and should indeed be more selective about the in-take of business discourse.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Marketization is a policy via which a market model is implemented in public institutions in their operations (Fairclough, 1993). In the UK, marketization has been implemented in various public institutions (e.g. NHS, legal services, etc.) including universities (Tomlinson, 2005). Apart from this institutional change, marketization is claimed to be part of a larger social and cultural change in which 'the embedding of society within the economy (rather than the other way round) has been elevated to the status of a largely unquestioned precept' (Mautner, 2010: 16). This change has a profound impact on the operation of education institutions as well as on their identity and their discursive practices (ibid.). Recently, the Council for the Defence of British Universities (http://cdbu.org.uk/) has been established by academics and leading scholars in the UK in order to counter the power of marketization. This move indicates the concern that marketization may have a detrimental impact on education.

Research in sociology and higher education management has investigated such changes in UK universities. A number of studies point towards an increasing corporatization and entrepreneurialization of universities (cf. McNay, 1995; Henkel, 1997; Hartley et al., 2004). Slaughter & Leslie (1997), for example, assert that academic identity has changed as academics have responsibility not only for teaching and research but also for generating income and commercializing their study. Tomlinson (2005), among others, notes the de-professionalization of academics owing to managerial control of academic work, target-setting and accountability, which result in increased paperwork and reduced morale and job insecurity. Coffield and Williamson (1997) also raise the issue of managerial and business

language that is creeping into university discourse. This, they claim, has far-reaching consequences, because language frames the way people perceive the world. While providing insights into the structural changes in UK universities, these studies have not approached this topic from a linguistic perspective, or when language is touched upon, it is only from a very narrow perspective.

I believe that studying the marketization of UK universities through the lens of discourse (e.g. critical discourse analysis or CDA) can contribute to our understanding of this important phenomenon. As Fairclough (1992) argues, social change is partly discursive change, and an in-depth analysis of texts can offer insights into how the marketization of UK universities affects their discursive practices. Furthermore, as language is an important aspect of society and a frame that controls our thought (cf. Fairclough, 1992; Coffield and Williamson, 1997), a critical analysis of the language used in universities might offer insights into both the changing discourses and sociocultural practices of UK universities, as well as the changing identities and relationships of participants involved in these public institutions.

A central claim made by Fairclough is that the marketization of higher education results in a 'restructuring of the order of discourse on the model of more central market organizations' in the university (Fairclough, 1993: 143). That is to say, university discourse will become more similar to business discourse. This claim requires a diachronic investigation into how the discursive practices of universities have changed. It also requires a synchronic comparison to demonstrate whether or not the language of universities has become more similar to that of business organizations.

This thesis aims both to explore Fairclough's (1993) claim and also to further our understanding of discourse related to the marketization of UK universities. To do so, the study

employs critical discourse analysis (CDA) as a conceptual framework and uses both corpus linguistics and close text analysis to analyze university and business discourse. Job advertisements – a genre associated with recruitment discourse – were chosen as the site of investigation. The job advertisements produced by universities and by business organizations were diachronically and synchronically compared to examine their similarities and differences. The primary aim of this study is to explore the marketized discourse of UK universities. The analysis was guided by the following overarching research questions:

RQ1. What are the similarities and differences between recent university and financial job advertisements in terms of:

1. the representation of employer organizations and applicants;
2. how the relationship between employer organizations and applicants is construed;
3. the generic structure of job advertisements;
4. the phraseology of job advertisements?

These comparisons will open a window onto the current discursive practices of UK universities. In order to explore how these practices have changed over time, RQ2 seeks to compare the findings with analyses from 40 years ago. The following research question is therefore posed.

RQ2. How do the current discursive practices in university and financial job advertisements (specifically 1–3) differ from those in the 1970s?

It is hypothesized that universities' discursive practices have become more similar to those of business and that this will be reflected in their language. The answer(s) to this research question will provide an indication of the extent to which university discourse has become marketized.

In order to address the above research questions I sought to combine the analysis of text corpora with critical discourse analysis. These two approaches to text analysis differ greatly – e.g. corpus linguistics tends to focus on large-scale analyses and the results are often quantitative in nature, while CDA traditionally involves close readings of a few texts which are more qualitative in nature. Given such differences, a secondary aim of this thesis is to explore the relationship between the two methods, how they might be used to inform each other, and the benefits and limitations of this triangulation of methods.

CHAPTER OVERVIEW

In this section, I provide an overview of the rest of the chapters in this thesis. Chapter 2 describes the changes in higher education institutions. It explains the sociopolitical influences that have transformed higher education from elitist institutions into marketized universities. It then offers an account from studies in sociology of education and educational management. These studies investigate how university staff view the marketization of higher education and how it affects their identity. The chapter concludes by arguing that marketization should be investigated via discourse analysis.

Chapter 3 provides the theoretical framework for this study. It starts with an explanation of critical discourse analysis. Then, it narrows down to the dialectical-relational approach (Fairclough, 2009), which investigates discourse and social change. This is followed by criticisms of critical discourse analysis and how these criticisms can be addressed. After that, the chapter explains the key concepts and tools of corpus linguistics, how corpus linguistics can be used in critical discourse analysis, and the criticisms of corpus linguistics. Next, this chapter reviews critical discourse studies of the marketization of higher education in order to establish a niche. It then offers a rationale for studying job advertisements and the background to job advertisement production and reception.

Chapter 4 deals with the data collection and research design. The chapter starts with the sources of data and how they were collected and cleaned up. After that, some frequency information about the corpora is provided and the formulaicity of an university job corpus and a financial job corpus is explored, looking at type/token ratio and lexical closure. The chapter concludes with the research questions and an overview of the analytical frameworks which are employed to answer the research questions.

Chapter 5 presents three corpus analyses of the data. First, the chapter touches on keyword analysis. Next, the chapter reports on an analysis of the evaluative adjectives used to describe employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements. It discusses the similarities and differences between the values underlying the descriptions of universities and business organizations. Third, an analysis of lexical bundles is elaborated on in relation to the phraseology of job advertisements and how lexical bundles are used for self-promotion and persuasion. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the main findings.

Chapter 6 is concerned with a genre analysis of job advertisements. First, a brief overview of genre theory (Bhatia, 2004) is offered. This is followed by a description of the moving coding that I developed and used to code the data. Then, the chapter reports on a comparison of move and step frequencies across the data sets. Next, this chapter moves on to the use of logos and strap lines in job advertisements as well as the use of typographical features to highlight information. Later, two emerging genres – employer profiles and employer videos – which are embedded within job advertisements are analyzed and discussed in terms of multimodal aspects.

Chapter 7 looks at a diachronic and synchronic comparison of the representations of employer organizations and applicants. As such, it has a connection with the analysis of

evaluative adjectives which also discusses how organizations are presented in job advertisements. However, instead of looking at adjectives, this chapter investigates the process types that co-occur with words referring to employer organizations and applicants according to the transitivity system of Halliday & Matthiessen (2004). First, the chapter describes transitivity systems and modality, and then it explains how they are used in this thesis. After that, a diachronic comparison of the representation of employer organizations in university job advertisements is made. Then the chapter focuses on a diachronic comparison of the representation of employer organizations in financial job advertisements. It also discusses the patterns identified in the diachronic analysis of university and financial job advertisements. The same procedure is repeated in a comparison of the representations of applicants in university and financial job advertisements

Chapter 8 discusses the findings in relation to the research questions with regard to the broad empirical aims of investigating Fairclough's claim about the colonization of university discourse by business discourse. It then reflects on the methodological synergy between corpus linguistics and critical discourse analysis. This is followed by my critique of the marketization of university discourse. Suggestions for future research are then made and the chapter ends by drawing a conclusion on the thesis as a whole.

CHAPTER 2 SOCIAL AND INSTITUTIONAL BACKGROUND OF MARKETIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THE UK

In this chapter, I include contextual information relating to UK universities and the changes to them brought about by marketization. Accounts from educational literature seem to suggest that over the last 40 years UK universities have become more business-oriented and increasingly lost their autonomy (cf. Tomlinson, 2005). My discussion, based on the literature in sociology of education and higher education management, begins with the educational landscape from the postwar period until the present situation of higher education in the UK. This is situated in relation to the political and economic forces that led to the marketization of higher education. In Section 2.2, I discuss previous studies on organizational changes in UK universities. In Section 2.3, I argue for studying the marketization of higher education institutions from a critical discourse analysis perspective.

2.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF UK UNIVERSITIES AND MARKETIZATION

In the educational literature, there are mixed views about the advantages and disadvantages of higher education institutions in the past. According to Wagner (1995) and Coffield & Williamson (1997), within the educational literature it is generally accepted that, in the past, universities were characterized by social elitism and exclusivity. The positive side of this system was that academics enjoyed a high degree of autonomy and the focus of research and its dissemination was often determined by their disciplines, not the policies enforced by their institutions (Harley, Muller-Camen, & Collin, 2004). However, the

drawback of this system, according to Tomlinson (2005), was that with social class division and unequal access to education, university education was restricted to social elites. Decisions regarding research and teaching went largely unquestioned. Becher (1989 cited by Coffield Williamson, 1997: 7) also states that universities designed their curricula independently without responsiveness to societal needs.

The postwar period (1940–70) saw drastic changes in society and educational policies in the UK. Tomlinson (2005) states that from the 1940s to the 1970s, the UK was a welfare state in which education was viewed as a basic right for every citizen and so education expanded in response to the government's inclusive approach to it. Many comprehensive schools were established. There was a steep rise in university admissions together with the 'mass education' system which is the 'transmission of skills and preparation for a broader range of technical and economic elite roles' (Trow, 2006: 1). Alternative higher education institutions, including the polytechnics and the Open University, were launched at the end of the 1960s, following the Robin Report, to provide professional and vocational studies and education for adult returners (Wagner, 1995: 19).

With the massive expansion in education, criticisms were levelled at the status quo in UK higher education institutions. Annan (1990 cited in Coffield and Williamson, 1997: 7) states that the social exclusivity and elitism of universities during that period were not sustainable, given the expansion of higher education. Furthermore, Deem (2001) explains that the organizational enlargement of UK universities resulting from this expansion entailed a need for a more efficient way of managing increasing numbers of students and staff as well as a more complex organizational structure. Another criticism, according to Coffield and Williamson (1997: 7–8), was the lack of accountability, as the government, industry and taxpayers questioned whether university funding was in fact providing value for money.

Tomlinson (2005) also notes the unequal access to education in which the middle classes benefited more from university than other social classes.

In addition, many authors points out that the financial situation in the 1970s threatened the welfare state and the funding and autonomy of universities. Tomlinson (2005) points out that the rapidly escalating oil prices in the 1970s and the declining economic power of the UK resulted in the first financial reduction in the education budget, in 1973. Moreover, she argues that the impact of globalization caused economic instability and hyper-competitiveness between different countries. As a consequence of such economic conditions, Baer (2000 cited in Tomlinson, 2005: 5) notes that the welfare state was criticized for inefficiency, which posed a threat to the competitiveness of Britain in the global economy. Furthermore, Huggins, Jones, & Upton (2008) claim that there was the emergence of a knowledge-based economy, in which value-added commodities played a vital role in the global market and a skilled workforce was needed, which then necessitated participation from the universities. Consequently, according to Tomlinson (2005), education and technology became a key agenda in politics, as they were perceived as a means for strengthening economic viability.

In response to the criticisms and economic situations outlined above, the introduction of market forces to the public services was made during Margaret Thatcher's prime ministerial term and those of later prime ministers. According to Tomlinson (2005: 29), when Margaret Thatcher became prime minister in 1979, she embraced and integrated the political ideologies of conservatism and liberalism which are known as the 'New Right'. This is a combination of neoliberalism, which believes in free market ideology and a reduction in governmental control over the public, and conservatism, which emphasizes 'tradition, hierarchy, authority and order' (ibid.). This led to the introduction of market forces to various public institutions, including the NHS, education, housing and legal services. Tomlinson

(2005) further notes the neoliberal policies of higher education which continued from Thatcher's government through those of Major and Blair. During John Major's period of office (1990-1997), there was an increasing enterprising culture in every domain of society as the government tried to equip citizens with enterprise skills and the Blair government (1997–2007) promoted the link between government and business enterprise

The key educational policies during this period were the Jaratt Report and the Education Act, 1992. In 1985, the Jarratt report by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals supported making changes to the way in which universities managed their affairs. The changes to the universities' management system, which had up until that point been loosely controlled, seemed to bring universities into line with the way in which private organizations were managed (Jarratt, Vice-Chancellors, & for Efficiency Studies in Universities, 1985 cited in Harley et al., 2004: 332). The Education Act 1992 granted university status to polytechnics and unified traditional universities and polytechnics, since both would be funded by the Higher Education Funding Councils for England and Wales (Wagner, 1995: 20; Tomlinson, 2005: 65). This act resulted in several fundamental changes to the structure of UK universities and this has been claimed to be the government's attempt to change the internal structure of traditional universities, making them adjust to be more suitable for the massification of higher education and education for economic purposes (Wagner, 1995). Wagner (1995: 20–1) argued that with this change, autonomy in the assessment and standardization of academic work was replaced by 'systems of audit and assessment'. This also derived from the government's attempt to decrease the dependency of universities on government funding and increase the market forces on them. There were further cuts to the higher education budget, thus forcing universities to marketize and find alternative financial resources from, for example, business organizations.

The policies of successive governments have had a far-reaching impact on the universities. McNay (1995) argues that the competition became more intense as spending cuts continued and both universities and polytechnics competed for income. They both entered the market of delivering an educational experience, which is their service, to their customers, students, whose number determine the amount of money allocated by the government to support teaching. Dearlove (1997 cited by Harley et al., 2004: 331) argues that as funding is assessed based on the numbers of students enrolled on courses; in consequence, there is the 'de-professionalization of academic work and the proletarianization of academic worker'. In addition, universities needed to expand the market to international students. Foskett (2011) argues that this expansion resulted from government policies and globalization. This is due to the demand for international collaboration in terms of teaching and research and for equipping local students with 'global citizenship' (Foskett, 2011: 34). Clark (1998: xiii) investigates the concept of entrepreneurial universities and describes this phenomenon as universities being:

> [...] pushed and pulled by enlarging, interacting streams of demand, universities are pressured to change their curricula, alter their faculties, and modernize their increasingly expensive physical plant and equipment[…]

Deem (2001: 7) also notes that academic staff and managers try to find alternative financial resources from private organizations via 'consultancies and applied research' – a phenomenon which is termed 'entrepreneurialism'.

Tomlinson (2005), among others, argues that universities nowadays operate like businesses, competing with each other and treating students as customers. Deem (2001) notes the rising managerialist ideology in academia, which is the adoption of ideologies and

management strategies from private organizations into public services institutions. These may include allocating cost centres and encouraging competition between them, the implementation of team working, target setting and efficiency assessing. According to Love (2008), marketization also involves the alteration of organizational cultures and values to be more similar to business organizations. For example, Love (2008: 15) comments that:

> […] the higher education sector of the United Kingdom is rapidly being re-conceptualised and reorganized along business lines.

Another facet of marketization is the increasing emphasis on marketing activities in each university. According to Bakewell & Gibson-Sweet (1998), higher education institutions are engaged in marketing activities in a more professional way than previously. Foskett (2011: 36) calculates that universities now allocate much higher spending to marketing activities than in the past and have senior management positions for marketing as well. Part of any marketing initiative is 'branding', and Rolfe (2003) states that:

> Branding is an issue of strategic importance and universities are expending considerable amounts of resource on branding their institutions. (cited in Chapleo, 2011: 102)

Apart from marketing and other new activities that universities have to engage in, various authors note that the academic work has changed as well. Brennan, El-khawas, & Shah (1994 cited in Deem, 2001: 292) mention new appraisal frameworks and academic audits for academic staff, which exert more control over the quality of their work. Harley et al. (2004: 332) reports that middle managers in universities, i.e. academic deans, have been responsible for ensuring that their department meet the targets for research output, external financial support and academic performance. Moreover, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) note a

new responsibility for academics, which is generating income for their university to offset the declining financial support from the government, a phenomenon called academic capitalism (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997). Harley et al. (2004) also argue that research has been commodified and judged based on value for money and research funding, instead of its contribution to disciplinary advancement. Tomlinson (2005) argues that policymakers saw that with the reality of a knowledge-based economy, universities possessed a rich source of knowledgeable academics capable of research and developing commodities. Academics were consequently encouraged to forge links with business and engage in the commercialization of their research.

In terms of teaching and learning, within marketized institutions, Trowler (2001: 185–7) states that 'knowledge and learning are conceived as being ‘atomistic, mechanistic […] permanent, cumulative, context independent and commodified'. Love (2008: 19) notes the 'customer-care approach' to teaching. He acknowledges that this approach can be beneficial to students because they are valued and teachers must be active in responding to students’ needs. Barnett (2011) also supports marketized education. He says that in such a system where students bear the cost of education, they have more power as holders of resources for universities and will be more careful about their education choices. Students as customers, Barnett claims, will engage more with learning so that universities have to compete against each other to attract students.

However, Love also cautions that marketized education can lead to more leniency in teaching and the simplification of knowledge (Love, 2008). Molesworth, Nixon, & Scullion (2009) argue against marketized education, which educates students to be consumers who want a degree, to be employed, and to consume. Teaching is viewed as preparing students for consumer culture, making students have a ‘restrictive societal interest in graduation as a

means of personal wealth creation' (Gibbs, 2001 cited in Molesworth et al., 2009: 279). They further claim that it worsens learning because students will take an instrumental approach to education, aiming to do well in exams, instead of pursuing in-depth understanding of the subject. Nixon, Scullion, & Molesworth (2011: 206) criticize the commodification of knowledge, saying that it places too much emphasis on short-term goals. In addition, they claim that education should not be merely about possessing skills and knowledge but also be geared towards the intellectual development of students as persons. They also argue that a marketized education system puts universities in a conflicting role: institutions that need to please customers on the one hand and maintain their role as gatekeepers of educational standards on the other. The duty of universities to satisfy their customers may lead to grade inflation and over-simplicity in studying. They conclude that this will jeopardize the credibility of universities because a degree does not guarantee that students will have the skills, knowledge and characteristics, such as imaginativeness and criticality, required for the workplace.

What is more, Harley et al. (2004) claim that there has been a heightened interest in the accountability of higher education institutions, resulting in the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), Quality Assurance and league tables. The Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) was initiated in 1986 to measure the research quality of UK universities, which can be seen as a contrast to academic autonomy and an attempt to hold universities accountable for public money (ibid.). They further argue that assessment informs the funding provided to each university and this subsequently influences the recruitment process of academic staff (Harley et al., 2004: 332). Molesworth et al. (2009: 280) raise a concern that 'the overriding criterion by which we measure the value of HE is its contribution to the economy. This is what we refer to as the neo-liberal university.' They note the consumerism ideology that narrowly

frames the essence of higher education institutions on economic terms, which is dominant to the point of being their sole accountability to the public.

At this point, it seems that the educational literature is predominantly against the marketization of higher education. However, there are also supporters of marketization who argue that it can benefit universities. Gibbs & Knapp (2002), for instance, have written a book about how marketing can be applied in the higher education context. They believe that marketing can inform how universities should allocate resources and implement policies. Barnett (2011: 38) notes that the 'pro-market camp' advocates marketization because it is a means of attracting financial resources and is needed for the maintenance of higher education quality, albeit with spending cuts and expansion of the sector. In fact, the so-called pro-market is a dominant ideology among decision-makers (Brown, 2011). According to Brown:

> Ideologically, there is a strong belief on the part of many governments and policy makers that market competition makes institutions more efficient and responsive to stakeholders. (Brown, 2011: 18)

In summary, the higher education sector in the UK has changed from elitist institutions to marketized institutions. The driving forces of marketization are complex, encompassing, for instance, recession in the economy, global competition in the higher education sector and the need for sustainable higher education expansion while maintaining quality. These factors have led to many marketization policies which have resulted in changes to the running of UK universities, and there have been criticisms levelled at the nature of education, and the management and identity of universities.

2.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION

In the previous section, I reviewed relevant literature, mostly theoretical papers in sociology and higher education management, in terms of policy and institutional changes. In this section, the focus is on studies that investigate what staff members think about the changes. There are several authors whose research supports the claim that UK universities have become more business-oriented and that this has had a great impact on the identity of universities as well as the people involved. Some authors, conversely, offer counter evidence and argue that it is possible to accept the systems while retaining values and identity. I discuss this below.

Ian McNay (1995) provides an insightful account of the restructuring of universities, which is geared towards enterprise and corporatism. He interviewed management staff and found that there was a general trend for UK universities to move from collegiums and bureaucracy to corporations and finally an enterprise culture, but this does not apply to every university and these four cultures still co-exist.

Henkel's (1997) study on organizational change in UK universities seems to lend support to McNay's research as well. Based on interviews with personnel from six universities in England, the participants noted a trend to move from traditional universities to 'corporate enterprise' (Henkel, 1997: 136). They pointed out that universities emphasized strong leadership but at the same time decentralized responsibility to the department level. They also reported that the tenure system was being replaced by differentiated contracts for research and teaching staff. This was perceived as a threat to the collegiality of academic staff. Moreover, academic workload increased tremendously in order to raise efficiency and

competitiveness and in response to external evaluation. Administrators' authority was reinforced as they were responsible for ensuring quality and managing universities efficiently, but Henkel also noted that academic managers still found themselves facilitators of university work, not bosses who exert power over their employees. She also found that the academics' view of the new system was ambivalent. While some academics reconciled themselves to the pressure, seeing it as an opportunity for professional development and acknowledging the necessity for new systems to manage the institutions, others were concerned about consumerism that was permeating universities, potentially attenuating their authority and decreasing standards.

Harley et al.'s (2004) study was on the impact of the Research Assessment Exercise on UK universities. They interviewed a group of academics who indicated an enormous change in the operation of universities and academic identity. The funding of universities is determined by this assessment, resulting in the recruitment of academic staff based on the criteria set by the RAE. The practice also raises the universities' interest in controlling academic work and achieving a higher ranking. Research is given a higher priority than teaching. The participants agreed with RAE as it promotes research, professional development and helps increase the status of their institutions. Yet the increasing pressure, the threat to academic freedom, the fierce competition between staff and a sense of insecurity were also raised by respondents. Harley et al. stated that academic careers in the UK, which used to be professional, become more entrepreneurial as academics in different departments compete against each other for financial resources.

Lam (2010), however, provides counter evidence and argues that academics can have the agency to retain their own identity despite institutional changes. She further claims that an organization might change in terms of policy but the organization culture can still be

preserved. In her study, academic scientists seemed to be selective in terms of entrepreneurial identity and only chose something that benefited their careers. There were very few academics who became fully entrepreneurs. The majority are a hybrid of traditional and entrepreneurial academics.

Although the main focus of the research described in this chapter is on aspects other than language, some researchers do mention the changing discourse. Coffield & Williamson (1997) note the adoption of business vocabulary into the discourse of universities and other educational institutions. They state that academic managers use language full of business jargon when referring to markets, efficiency and strategy. Johnson (2001) examined marketing discourse in UK universities and noted that UK universities have become more market-oriented and accepting of marketing ideology and discourse. Deem & Brehony's (2005) paper seems to corroborate these authors. They argue that the language of business permeates the discourse of UK universities and some manager-academics adopt such language and the ideology that comes with it. Moreover, there seems to be a consensus among these authors that language can shape the way in which UK universities and people involved position themselves and reflect the reality of how universities operate. In Love's (2008: 17) words, the 'language and symbolism of a rampant business culture now surround and permeate the modus operandi of today's academy'.

2. 3 ARGUMENTS AND RATIONALE FOR STUDYING MARKETIZATION FROM A DISCOURSE PERSPECTIVE

In the previous two sections, it is evident that the majority of literature related to the marketization of higher education is critical of these policies and institutional changes. There are criticisms about the demand for universities to satisfy their customers. This demand can

cause leniency in grading, thereby downgrading the quality of education. Another criticism is that marketization threatens academic freedom and alienates staff. Research output is assessed in terms of its value for money, which sounds rather mercenary and reduces knowledge creation to income generation. Also, as the previous section notes, the discourse and ideology of businesses can have a profound impact on higher education institutions.

Despite claims of an invasion of business language into university discourse, the studies in the previous section do not analyze data from a linguistic perspective. The claims made are, however, congruent with a critical discourse analysis view of language; that is, discourse is shaped by society and it also reproduces the social world (Fairclough, 2003). As discourse is a reflection of society, I believe that critical discourse analysis can contribute to the investigation of this phenomenon via in-depth text analysis. In the investigation of organizational change, there is a 'linguistic turn' to organizational research and such methodology has proved insightful to various organizational studies (Iedema & Wodak, 1999: 6).

Iedema and Wodak (1999) argued that studies on organizational discourse have taken on great importance. Mumby & Clair (1997: 181) define an organization as 'a social collective, produced, reproduced, and transformed through the ongoing, interdependent and goal-oriented communication of its members'. The organization is perceived as being constructed in discourse (Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004: 5), and communication amongst organizational members serves to construct the organizational reality (Iedema and Wodak, 1999: 7). The notion of organizations as social aggregates which are discursively constructed by the members' discourse practices does not mean that organizations are merely discourse, rather discourse is an important means by which organizational members form a 'coherent social reality' about the organization and its identity.

Another reason why the marketization of UK universities should be investigated via discourse is the crucial role that language plays in contemporary society. Fairclough (2003) argued that contemporary society is an information society and involves a knowledge-based economy. In such a society, discourse plays a fundamental role in the dissemination of knowledge and thus itself becomes a commodity. He quotes Bourdieu & Wacquant (2001) that discourse can be an important factor in transforming society because 'it has the performative power to bring into being the very realities it claims to describe' (cited in Fairclough, 2003: 204). As such, it deems it important to study that university discourse which may shed further light on the impact of marketization. Against the backdrop of critical concerns over marketization, this study hopes to offer a critical reflection and problematization of market ideologies which are imported in university discourse. In the next chapter, I explicate critical discourse analysis theory and discuss Fairclough's dialectical-relational approach to critical discourse analysis in terms of how it can be applied to this study.

CHAPTER 3 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS, CORPUS LINGUISTICS AND THE GENRE OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

In this chapter, I make the following arguments. First, critical discourse analysis provides a useful theoretical framework for conceptualizing the marketization of higher education through discourse analysis. Second, corpus linguistics can supplement critical discourse analysis (CDA) by offering a method to investigate large amounts of data. Finally, job advertisements constitute an appropriate site of investigation into marketized discourse in the higher-education institution context. I start with an explication of CDA theory, how marketization can be conceptualized from a CDA perspective, and some criticisms of CDA. In Section 3.2, I explain some key concepts in corpus linguistics and its possible contribution to CDA. In Section 3.3, I situate my study in a body of linguistic literature on the marketization of higher education in order to find a point of entry for this phenomenon. In Section 3.4, I provide a rationale for selecting job advertisements as data and discuss the background to job advertisement production in UK universities.

3.1 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

3.1.1 Definition of critical discourse analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis systematically examines language and other semiotic resources not for the sake of linguistic analysis but for the study of social phenomena. As a research programme, 'CDA aims to critically investigate social inequality as it is expressed, constituted, legitimized and so on, by language use (or in discourse)' (Wodak & Meyer, 2009: 10). There are four key underpinning concepts in CDA: 1) social inequality and power, 2)

ideology and hegemony, 3) the relation between discourse and society and 4) critique. In what follows, I elaborate on these concepts.

According to Wodak and Meyer (2009), social inequality and power is a central concept in CDA as it is interested in the abuse of power by dominant groups and resistance from those dominated groups which is realized in texts. Fairclough and Wodak (1997: 272) state that power is 'exercised and negotiated in discourse' and over discourse. The former (power struggle in discourse) is based on the notion that texts are social actions and that language can be used to encode power relations, exert force on others and challenge power relations. The latter (power struggle over discourse) involves the power of access to discourse by a powerful group and the power to alter the discursive practices and orders of discourse (see Section 3.1.2 for an explanation of orders of discourse).

However, Fairclough (2010) argues that the exercise of power and the maintenance of social inequality are not always apparent on the surface but through ideological manipulation. Sometimes, dominant groups do not control with force but via reciprocity from less powerful groups by discursively creating ideologies. According to Fairclough (2003: 218), "Ideologies are representations of aspects of the world which contribute to establishing and maintaining relations of power and domination and exploitation." Ideology rationalizes unequal power relations and lets the powerless assume an identity, perceiving the world in a way that benefits the powerful and concedes to their power. Once it becomes naturalized or reaches a state of hegemony, it seems to be common sense and neutral, thus there seems to be no alternative. Critical discourse analysis aims to unpack this phenomenon by studying the relationship between discourse, power and ideology and how this results in 'hegemony' (Gramsci, 1971).

CDA takes discourse as a site for investigating social inequality and ideology manipulation because it regards discourse as a social practice. Discourse has a "dialectical relationship with society" (Wodak & Fairclough, 1997: 258). That is, it is shaped by society and also shapes society. Furthermore, discourse is used as a tool to construct and transmit ideology. In Wodak and Fairclough's words:

> CDA sees discourse – language use in speech and writing – as a form of 'social practice'. Describing discourse as social practice implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), institution(s) and social structure(s), which frame it: The discursive event is shaped by them, but it also shapes them.[…] Discursive practices may have major ideological effects – that is, they can help produce and reproduce unequal power relation between (for instance) social classes, women and men, and ethnic/cultural majorities and minorities through the ways in which they represent things and position people. (Wodak & Fairclough, 1997: 258)

When analyzing discourse, CDA has a critical aim which is rooted in Critical Theory and critical linguistics. Influenced by Critical Theory, CDA aims to improve the understanding of society by studying it in a historical context and integrating multidisciplinary perspectives in the investigation. Critical linguistics claims that systematic investigation can shed light on the way language is used to conceal social phenomena (Fowler, Hodge, Kress, & Trew, 1979). With these two influences, the critical element of CDA aims to raise people's awareness and self-reflection in order that they might emancipate themselves from social domination. This can be achieved by systematic linguistic analysis which shows how language is used to create and maintain unequal power relations.

Wodak & Meyer (2009: 7) caution critical discourse analysts in that a critique will often presuppose certain "ethical standards" of analysts who are also part of the social structure. As such, a critique cannot be taken as objective and free from "social, economic and political motives" (ibid.). Van Leeuwen (2006: 293 cited in Wodak & Meyer, 2009: 7) notes that researchers need to "make their position, research interests and values explicit and their criteria as transparent as possible without feeling the need to apologize for the critical stance of their work".

Critical discourse analysis comprises various approaches and each of them has a different orientation and methodology (cf. Fairclough and Wodak, 1997). This thesis employs a dialectical-relational approach (Fairclough, 2009) as this theory, as a development of the study of discourse and social change (Fairclough, 1992) and Fairclough's (1993) work, is among the earliest linguistic studies on the marketization of higher education in the UK (I have been unable to find earlier linguistic studies). I expand on this theory in the following section.

3.1.2 Dialectical-relational approach to critical discourse analysis and social change

The basic premise of the dialectical-relational approach (Fairclough, 2009, 2010) is the assumption of a dialectical relationship between discourse and society. The primary interest of this approach is the relationship between social change and changes in discursive practices, particularly when changes result from the power struggles between social groups or institutions in order to achieve dominance over others (Wodak & Fairclough, 1997: 264–5). In Fairclough's words, this approach to critical discourse analysis:

> [...] aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and

> (b) wider social cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles of power; to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony. (Fairclough, 1993: 135)

Fairclough (2010) argues that the struggles for dominance partly take place in discourse. This is because discourse is a social practice, i.e. it is used to perform an action and has an ideological function in constructing the social identities of an institution, its members and its relation with other institutions. Therefore, a change in the discourse of an institution involves not only changes in language but also in culture and identity. One of these changes is a blurring of the boundary between different kinds of institutions, such as education and business, making one more similar to the other.

From the perspective of critical discourse analysis, the object of investigation is the order of discourse of a particular institution. According to Fairclough (2010: 93) :

> [...] the order of discourse of some social domain is the totality of its discursive practices and the relationship between them (of complementarity, inclusion/ exclusion, opposition) between them.

Orders of discourse can be viewed as linguistic conventions governing how texts are produced. Texts are often hybridized, drawing on the discursive practices of different institutions, genres, etc. The choices are not made freely because different institutions have regularities in their text production. However, when there is a social/ institutional change, there can be a blurring of the boundaries between different institutions, resulting in texts being mixed with discursive practices from different institutions. This phenomenon is termed

‘interdiscursivity’ (Fairclough, 2010: 96). By way of illustration, in his seminal work in the marketization of higher education, Fairclough (1993:143) argues that 'there is an increasing salience within higher education of promotion as a communicative function'. And he also points out that the discourse conventions of corporate advertising and commodity advertising can be found in some of the texts produced by universities. This interdiscursivity indicates a blurring of the boundaries between educational institutions and business corporations.

Fairclough (1993) offers a 3-dimensional model of discourse for analysis of the linkage between discourse and social change. This model, however, is not an analytical framework for describing text patterning per se but rather a way of conceptualizing the relationship between discourse and society so as to guide the interpretation of linguistic features in relation to the sociocultural practice in which the text is situated. This model conceptualizes discourse as textual practice, discourse practice and sociocultural practice, as shown in Figure 3-1 below, which is adapted from Fairclough (2010: 133):

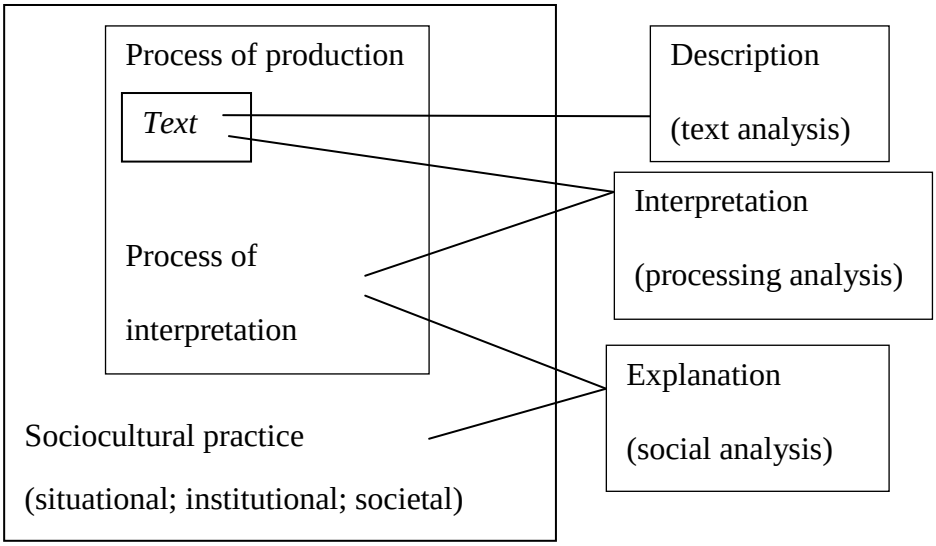


Figure 3-1 Dimension of discourse analysis

From this model, it is apparent that the analysis cuts across three dimensions of discourse. At the level of textual practice, the analysis identifies and describes the linguistic features of the texts in question. This approach analyses the linguistic form as well as the semantic content of a text. According to Fairclough (1993: 136), there are many linguistic features that can be investigated, such as generic structures, clause structure which can be analyzed in terms of transitivity, mood and modality, and lexical choices. At the level of discourse practice, the analysis casts light on the production and interpretation of texts. It aims to identify what genre or discursive conventions are being drawn upon in texts, which in turn can illuminate the interdiscursivity of the texts in question. At the level of sociocultural practice, the analysis considers the social and institutional conventions or processes that influence how texts are produced or received. These three dimensions are related to each other, with discourse practice mediating between textual practice and sociocultural practice. Once there is a change in social and institutional practice, there can be changes in terms of the discourse practice, in which genre or discourse conventions from other institutions are mixed

with the institutions in question when they produce texts, resulting in interdiscursivity. This interdiscursivity is manifest in textual features, which signal how texts should be interpreted from the point of view of text consumers. In Fairclough's words:

> How a text is produced or interpreted […] depends upon the nature of the socio-cultural practice which the discourse is part of (including the relationship of hegemonies); the nature of the discourse practice of text production shapes the text, and leave 'traces' in surface features of the text; and the nature of the discourse practice of text interpretation determines how the surface features of a text will be interpreted. (Fairclough, 2010: 132)

Fairclough also notes three major trends in discursive changes: 1) conversationalization, 2) the technologization of discourse and 3) the commodification of discourse (Fairclough, 1992). Conversationalization is the phenomenon whereby public discourse diverts towards personal conversation. This has also been termed "informalization" (Featherstone, 1991). However, Fairclough notes that conversationalization often has a sales motive which he terms 'synthetic personalization' (Fairclough, 1993: 140). The second phenomenon, the technologization of discourse, is a top-down process whereby organizations transform their discursive practices and train their members to accept this new discursive practice. The final phenomenon, the commodification of discourse, increases the saliency of promotion as a communicative function of discourse. He notes that "the genre of consumer advertising has been colonizing professional and public service orders of discourse on a massive scale" (Fairclough, 1993: 141), a point also noted by Bhatia (2004). This phenomenon results from the promotional (Wernick, 1991) or consumer culture (Featherstone, 1991) which characterizes contemporary society.

The investigation of this thesis mainly focuses on textual practice, but I also researched copious literature related to sociocultural practice and discourse practices as background material for my interpretation. From sociocultural and institution perspectives, I have previously discussed, in Chapter 2, the history of marketization and institutional changes in higher education in detail. However, it is useful to recapitulate on and re-conceptualize it from a critical discourse analysis perspective. Therefore I will discuss sociocultural and institutional practices within UK universities in relation to marketization below and I will discuss the discourse practices of the genre of job advertisements in Section 3.4.

Various authors argue that the marketization of UK universities can be conceptualized as a hegemonic struggle at the structural and institutional levels, and also as discourse. At the institutional level, several authors (cf. Henkel, 1997; Tomlinson, 2005) suggest that the UK government exerts power over educational institutions via spending cuts and a number of other policies that have threatened the autonomy and authority of universities and led to structural changes which make universities more business oriented. Moreover, universities have been influenced by business organizations which provide them with alternative funding resources. These result in unequal power relations, with business dominating education, which has been noted by Mumby and Claire (1997), and Mautner (2005) too. Apart from structural aspects, there is also a struggle over the order of discourse (see Section 2.2) of UK universities. As various authors (cf, Coffield & Williamson, 1997; Johnson, 2001) have argued, discursively, marketization seems to make business organizations more powerful than universities by influencing universities to accept the discursive practices of business enterprise, which might lead to a new hegemony in the order of discourse of UK universities. Mautner (2010) argues that if we look at it from the perspective of speech accommodation theory, it is often the powerless that need to adapt to the powerful. As universities change

their discursive practices to resemble those of business corporations, they are complicit in reinforcing their powerlessness and therefore such transformation is a form of "symbolic violence" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 167). Mautner argues that there are three problems associated with the marketization of the discursive practices of public institutions, as follows:

> First, democratic governance and control are being threatened. The more structures, relationships and decision-making processes are removed from the political arena and placed on a commercial footing, the more difficult it becomes for the individual citizen to intervene. […]
>
> Second, the homogenized discourse of marketization constrains the ways in which we think and talk about social reality. Inevitably, the widespread use of the new "legitimated vocabularies" (Meyer and Rowan, 1992: 31) marginalizes, stifles and eventually obliterates alternative ways of expression. […]
>
> Third, this restricted view poses a threat to established values […]. It is not that these other value systems are morally superior per se, but that they are more appropriated to their respective social domains. (Mautner, 2010: 29–30)

Authors have also noted the influence of promotional and consumerism culture (Featherstone, 1991; Wernick, 1991), which might also impact on the discursive practices of UK universities (Chaiyasuk, 2007; Fairclough, 1993; Mayr, 2008). As such, the institutional changes in higher education context may be influenced by overarching social cultural change and the rise of consumer culture.

Nevertheless, it seems that many authors have noted the power of universities to be selective and resist the influence of marketization. Chouliaraki and Fairclough's (1999) concept of colonization and appropriation is useful here. Researchers in sociology and educational management (cf. Trowler, 2001) have pointed out that universities have a degree of agency and do not completely accept business ideology. Rather, there might be a degree of hybridization. From a discourse perspective, I find it interesting to identify the similarities and differences between university and business orders of discourse, as well as hybridization. Such insights from discourse can hopefully make a contribution to the study of marketization and its implications for education in the UK.

To contribute to the study of marketization of higher education, the focus of this thesis is on the description and interpretation of linguistic features indicating the interdiscursivity of university and business discourse (the two smaller boxes in Fairclough's model on page 27). While social explanation is not the main focus, it will be touched on in relation to how discourse represents and shapes the identity of university and staff.

3.1.3 Criticisms of critical discourse analysis

There are many criticisms levelled at critical discourse analysis. This section centres on the criticisms of CDA as well as the responses to them. There are also proposals for how to strengthen CDA research as made by Stubbs (1997). I also indicate how I integrate the proposals into my thesis.

The first criticism relates to the representativeness of data and the generalizability of findings. Stubbs (1997) states that many studies in critical discourse analysis are based on only a few subjectively selected data and some analyze only text fragments. Tyrwhitt-Drake (1999: 1083) even says that critical discourse analysis is "anti-empirical". As noted by

Wodak & Meyer (2009), the focus on strengthening CDA research with more data has now become a key agenda of CDA studies. What is more, there have been many studies in CDA based on a large amount of data (see for example Baker et al., 2008)

In terms of generalizability, Stubbs (1997) points out that the claim about social change and discursive change lack quantitative findings based on a diachronic comparison. The selection of linguistic data is problematic because only a few linguistic features are selected (Stubbs, 1997; Tyrwhitt-Drake, 1999) and Widdowson (1995: 169) further argues that critical discourse analysts only select the linguistic features that will prove their points. As noted by Mautner (2010), research cannot describe every linguistic feature as that would result in a lack of focus. It also seems to me that CDA research often looks at various linguistic features (cf. Baker et al., 2008; Fairclough, 1993; Mayr, 2008).

A further critique is of the interpretative process of critical discourse analysis which has been criticized as being biased (Widdowson, 1995). In relation to Fairclough's (1995: 71) and Fowler's (1996: 90) emphasis, "ideology cannot be read off texts in a mechanical way", thus critical discourse analysts are criticized for not being explicit about how they arrive at their interpretation. Stubbs says that the interpretation of critical discourse analysis is 'political rather than linguistically motivated' (Stubbs, 1997: 2) and that 'the analysts themselves are reading meanings into texts on the basis of their own unexplicated knowledge' (Stubbs, 1997: 4). Tyrwhitt-Drake (1999: 1083) even says that critical discourse analysts find the temptation to 'work backwards from their conclusion, seeking the evidence that makes it inevitable, rather than forward to it, from objectively examined data, is one they find themselves unable to resist'.

Flowerdew (1999), in response to Tyrwhitt-Drake's paper, questions how CDA analysts can arrive at a conclusion without having been exposed to the texts and the society in which the texts are a part. Flowerdew argues that he starts reading texts without having any linguistic features to focus on. Only after he notices patterns does he then explore these linguistic features in a more systematic way. In relation to the criticism about being more explicit about the contextual knowledge for text interpretation, Fairclough (2003) states that ethnographic research and research into audience reception should be included to strengthen CDA studies. Coffin, Hewings, & O'Halloran (2004) proposes that a large corpus of texts can be used to aid the interpretation via an investigation of the semantic prosody of certain terms.

The final criticism relates to the relationship between language and cognition, i.e. how linguistic features naturalize ideology. This is left unexplained in critical discourse analysis (Stubbs, 1997). However, recent CDA studies have also integrated theories of cognition during the analysis (cf. Koller, 2004).

Apart from criticisms, Stubbs proposes the following four methods to strengthen CDA research:

> 1. Ethnographic study of actual text production (e.g. Bell, 1991);
>
> 2. analysis of co-occurring linguistic features (Biber, 1988, 1995);
>
> 3. comparison of texts and corpora, including diachronic and cross-language corpora (e.g. Krishnamurthy, 1996; Stubbs, 1997);
>
> 4. study of text dissemination and audience reception. (Stubbs, 1997: 10) [numbers added]

In relation to the first and fourth proposals, I investigate the background of text production and reception in order to strengthen my analysis. I read the guidelines for writing job advertisements and the procedures for job advertisement production which are posted on some university websites. I read previous studies about the genre of job advertisements and how they are read by their audience. I also interviewed an HR officer at the University of Birmingham. This is explicated further in Section 3.4.2.

Regarding data, the second and third proposals, this thesis is based on two one-million-word corpora of job advertisements produced by UK universities and financial business corporations as well as 120 job advertisements in 1970s newspapers (for more details, please see Section 4.1). Therefore, it has a strong empirical basis, involving synchronic and diachronic comparisons. Given a large data set, corpus linguistic methods are applied to facilitate the analysis. Stubbs (1997) and various authors (e.g. Baker et al., 2008) have argued that corpus linguistics can synergize and reinforce the quantitative aspect of data. The next section discusses the key tools in corpus linguistic methods and how they can be used in CDA.

3.2 CORPUS LINGUISTIC APPROACH TO CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

3.2.1 Definitions and key terms

A corpus is a collection of naturally-occurring texts selected in a systematic and purposeful manner (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998: 4; Hunston, 2002:2). This collection of texts is stored electronically, so that it can be analyzed with computer software, often a concordance programme to show frequency information, phraseology via the analysis of key words in context, and collocational profiles (Hunston, 2002: 3). Generally, corpora contain a

large number of texts that are representative of a specific type of language. This allows researchers to make generalizations about a larger population based on the sample contained in the corpus. Another advantage of large amounts of quantitative data is that one can include statistical methods in the data analysis (Baker, 2006: 3; Mcenery, Xiao, & Tono, 2006: 5).

There are various methods of analysis in corpus linguistic methodology – commonly used ones include frequency lists, keyword analysis, the examination of collocations, concordances and n-grams. The frequency list shows the word type (i.e. distinctive words) and their frequency in a corpus. Such a list is often a starting point to examine the general lexis of the corpus under investigation (Scott and Tribble, 2006: 31).

3.2.1.1 Keywords

Keywords are lexical items that appear in a corpus significantly more (or less) often than in a reference corpus. These tend to indicate 'the aboutness and the style' of that corpus (Scott & Tribble, 2006: 83). Keyword analysis is adept at showing the differences between two data sets, such as two sides of an argument, two speakers or texts from different genres (Baker, 2006). Additionally, a comparison can be made between a specific corpus and a reference corpus, which can show the crucial concepts and their 'saliency' in a corpus (ibid.: 125). However, Baker (ibid.) warns that one should not only focus on differences while ignoring the similarities between texts (ibid.). From keyword lists, a closer examination of the context surrounding the words can show how these words are used and the discourses associated with them. It is not sufficient only to look at keywords because, as Sinclair (2008: 409) points out, phrases are units of meanings; investigation of the phraseological patterns of keywords is needed to show the meaning and function they play in discourse. Such

investigations can be undertaken by looking at collocations, concordances and n-grams (Granger and Paquot, 2008: 39).

3.2.1.2 Collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody

In linguistics, the concept of collocation denotes how meanings of words are influenced by frequent co-occurrence with nearby words or structures. Firth (1951 cited in Sinclair, 2008: XVI) gave the famous quote about collocations 'you shall know a word by the company it keeps'. According to Hunston (2002: 68, 118–19), in corpus linguistics, collocation is operationalized as words that appear near each other statistically significantly more often than would be expected by chance. Also, McEnery and Wilson (2001: 86) state that statistical measurement can:

> [...] determine empirically which pairs of words have a substantial amount of glue between them and which are, hence, likely to constitute significant collocations in that variety rather than chance pairings.

When combined with the examination of concordance lines, repeated patterns can be identified. Concordance lines show instances of a search word or 'node term' in the centre of the screen with the co-text on each side. Reading horizontally through concordance lines helps researchers notice patterns or words or grammatical structures that co-occur with the node term more easily.

The concept of collocation has been expanded beyond the association between lexical items to include abstraction on various levels. These abstractions bring about closely related concepts, namely, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. According to Sinclair (2004), colligation is a grammatical structure that frequently co-occurs with a word. Semantic preference refers to the semantic fields of lexical items that co-occur with the node

word. The concept of semantic prosody is defined by Louw (1993: 157 cited in Koller and Mautner, 2004: 222) as ‘a consistent aura of meaning with which a form is imbued by its collocates’. Certain words may therefore have a polarity of positive or negative undertone owing to frequently co-occurring words. Sinclair (1987) offers the words HAPPEN and SET IN as examples. He argues that these words have negative semantic prosody as they frequently co-occur with an ‘unpleasant state of affairs’ such as ‘decay, ill-will, decadence, impoverishment’ (Sinclair, 1987: 155–6). Collocation and these related concepts have been claimed to be not only a linguistic but also a psychological phenomenon. Hoey (2007: 8) proposes lexical priming theory to explain these concepts from a psychological perspective, claiming that cumulative exposure to patterns can prime readers to 'recognize and replicate' structure, meaning and pragmatic associations.

The concept of semantic prosody is not without its criticisms. Whitsitt (2005) points out that Louw's (1993) definition of semantic prosody seems to assume that a node term is empty while its collocates have content that flows into the node term. Whitsitt claims that this assumption is problematic. Secondly, he notes that Louw’s claim is diachronic, but research on semantic prosody is synchronic.

As a response to this criticism, a view from Hunston's (2007) paper is useful. In this paper, Hunston argues that semantic prosody has implications for the 'discourse functions of an extended unit of meanings and the attitudinal meanings typically associated with a word or phrase' (Hunston, 2007: 266). She further claims that the influence of semantic prosody is not absolute though the 'resonances of intertextuality are difficult to deny' (ibid.).

The concept of semantic prosody is useful for critical discourse analysis because, according to Koller and Mautner:

> [...] differences between socially, ideologically or historically distinct discourses often crystalize in different semantic prosodies of key lexical items whose descriptive and/or associative meaning is contested. (Koller & Mautner, 2004: 223)

Also, Baker (2006: 86–9) states that the discourse surrounding lexis can be traced from the semantic/ discourse prosodies which are primed due to the semantic categories that co-occur with keywords. Examining the semantic prosody of a key lexical item can consequently reveal how a concept is discursively constructed and how ideologies are naturalized through the collocational profiles of a particular word.

3.2.1.3 N-grams

N-grams or what Scott and Tribble (2006) term 'clusters' are strings of words that occur next to each other in a corpus and are extracted using corpus analysis software such as WordSmith. The term 'lexical bundles' was coined by Biber et al. (1999) to refer to 'sequences of word forms that commonly go together in discourse' and which are 'recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status' (Biber et al., 1999: 990). It seems to me that the distinction between 'cluster' and 'lexical bundle' is that the latter implies the discursive function of strings of words in discourse which is investigated by various works (cf. Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004). Examples from Biber et al. (1995: 1000) are 'the end of the', 'do you know what' and 'I thought it was'. Lexical bundles have been a focus of language study for a long time, under several names such as formulas, multiword sequences and fixed expressions (Biber et al., 2004: 372). Biber et al. (1999) employ a frequency-based approach to identifying lexical

bundles in discourse by setting up a cut-off point for the frequency of lexical bundles and the distribution of lexical bundles across texts. Lexical bundles can be two, three or four words long, or even longer, and the majority of lexical bundles are not structurally complete (ibid.: 995). These lexical bundles are then analyzed in terms of grammatical structure and communicative functions (Biber et al., 2004).

A number of studies have shown the value of investigating lexical bundles. Scott and Tribble (2006), in the second chapter of their book, suggest that lexical bundles are a form of word list, and therefore show the general lexis of a corpus under investigation. However, unlike word lists, lexical bundles also cast light on the phraseology of a corpus. A number of authors suggest that lexical bundles can indicate the uniqueness of a register and thus they can be exploited to discriminate different registers or genres through the identification of differences in phraseology (Glasier, 1998; Biber et al., 2004; Hyland, 2008). Furthermore, Biber et al. claim that lexical bundles are 'an important part of the communicative repertoire of speakers and writers' (Biber et al., 2004: 377) and that 'they are important building blocks of discourse, associated with basic communicative functions' (ibid.: 400). Baker (2006: 56) argues that because clusters show the context in which a term appears, they in turn indicate the discourses present in a corpus. However, he also notes that it is not sufficient to focus on frequent items alone because what is absent might be revealing about discourse that is taken for granted.

Biber et al. (2004) situate their work within the field of formulaic language. They argue that lexical bundles represent 'a repertoire of speakers and writers', suggesting that lexical bundles have some psychological reality. This seems to give lexical bundles equal status with formulaic sequences which have been widely claimed to be stored whole in the human mind (Wray, 2002: 4). Such a claim, however, is debatable. As pointed out by Wray

(2002), it is questionable whether strings of words identified based solely on a frequency threshold will guarantee the bundles are stored in the mind of speakers or writers given that the cut-off point is arbitrary and varies among different works (see for example Biber et al., 1999; Hyland, 2008). In addition, Wray argues that frequency does not measure the degree of association and whether co-occurrence is greater than would be expected by chance. Moreover, the frequency-based approach does not distinguish between formula and 'word juxtaposition of smaller units' (Wray 2002: 3). Finally, Wray argues that some formulaic sequences do not appear frequently in a corpus. Wray supports this argument with Moon's study (1998 cited in Wray, 2002: 30) which did not find some formulas such as 'kick the bucket' in an 18 million-word corpus.

3.2.2 Contributions of corpus linguistics to critical discourse analysis

There are several contributions that corpus linguistic methodology can make to critical discourse analysis. Corpora, if very large and well sampled, can lend a strong empirical basis to CDA research. A large data size and its representativeness might be a possible response to the criticisms that some CDA studies are based on a very small set of data and that researchers subjectively select the data to prove their point (Baker, 2006).

Moreover, researchers can look at concordance lines and calculate collocational strength to examine words, collocations, semantic preference and semantic prosody (Mautner, 2009: 123). The analysis of word association in terms of collocation, semantic preference and semantic prosody can only be done via horizontal readings of concordance lines, which makes it easier to notice words that co-occur with the node terms. This can in turn reveal the incremental effect of discourse and how repeated patterns discursively construct the concept under investigation (Fairclough, 2003: 131; Baker, 2006: 13).

For a detailed manual analysis of a text, corpus linguistics can be a form of triangulation to check the validity of analysis (Baker, 2006: 16) and help guard against 'overinterpretation and underinterpretation' (Coffin, Hewings, & O'Halloran, 2004: 275). As the semantic prosody of words or units of meaning might influence their use in a specific text type, an investigation of some words or phrases in a reference corpus can assist the interpretation (Mautner, 2005: 100). The semantic prosody of words can be investigated by looking at words and their collocations in a reference corpus, which can provide information about the general use of the words as well as the discourses surrounding them (Baker, 2006; Mautner, 2009).

Baker et al. (2008: 295) also suggest that corpus linguistic methodology can provide a 'pattern map of the data' and an entry point to where further investigation should be conducted. Key words in a corpus can indicate the aboutness and salient themes of the corpus under investigation (Baker, 2010). For instance, Baker et al. (2008) compared the representations of refugees, asylum-seekers and immigrants in broadsheet and tabloid newspapers in the UK. Bachman (2009) investigated the same-sex marriage debate in the House of Lords, focusing on a comparison of the arguments for and against the legislation for same-sex marriage. Studies of this kind employ keyword analysis to examine the key lexical items that show the distinctions between two sides or start with a word to show the concept under investigation (e.g. refugees). After that, collocates and concordance lines are investigated to see how concepts or discourses are constructed via language. Examples of other relevant studies are Fairclough (2000), Baker (2004), Baker and McEnery (2005), Gabrielatos and Baker (2008) and Salama (2011).

In the meantime, some analytical frameworks of a particular approach in critical discourse analysis lend themselves well to inform corpus analysis. The discourse-historical

approach (Reisigl and Wodak, 2009), for example, has categories such as nomination, argumentation strategies and so on (for more details and an explanation of these categories see Reisigl and Wodak, 2009: 87–121) which can be used when examining the collocates of key words (cf. Baker et al., 2008). In addition, Caldas-Coulthard and Moon (2010: 99–133) investigated the representation of men and women in the British Press, using the newspaper subcorpus of the Bank of English. They selected 'man', 'woman', 'girl' and 'boy' as search terms and classify collocations using categories from a Social Semiotics Approach (for more details and an explanation see Van Leeuwen, 2008).

3.2.3 Criticism of the application of corpus linguistics to critical discourse analysis

The application of corpus linguistics to critical discourse analysis has been criticized on various grounds. First, Baldry (2000: 36 cited in Baker, 2006: 7) claims that corpus linguistics deals with decontextualized data, which are in turn incompatible with CDA, which emphasizes the context in which texts are situated. Further to this point, Koller and Mautner (2004: 216) note a criticism that the corpus approach analyzes only a part of texts, shown in concordance lines; such decontextualization seems incongruent with CDA, which emphasizes analyzing the whole texts (ibid.).

Second, Baker (2006: 9) notes that corpus linguistics has been criticized for its focus on quantification and categorization, which may impose or reinforce existing categories on data analysis instead of deconstructing them. He further states that such emphasis is contradictory to the epistemological shift in the social sciences towards localized, in-depth and qualitative research within the post-structuralism, social constructionism and deconstructionism paradigms. Relevant to this point seems to be Tognini-Bonelli's (2001) classification of corpus studies, namely, *corpus-based* and *corpus-driven* approaches. The *corpus-based* approach involves applying a theory to corpus analysis, whereas the *corpus-*

driven approach accentuates analyzing without theoretical preconceptions and allowing a theory to emerge from the data. From this classification, it seems that the *corpus-based* approach falls under this criticism.

While these criticisms may certainly be true, they represent problems associated with the application of the methodology rather than the methodology itself. Baker et al. (2008) argue that an analyst can put context back into corpus data by researching the socio-historical contexts to which texts belong and studying previous research on that particular topic. Moreover, researchers can search and/or investigate the process of text production and reception to supplement the analysis. Also, corpora can be richly glossed with social and contextual annotations. In terms of the imposition of categories, the *corpus-driven* approach (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001) does not seem to impose preconceptions on data analysis. However, these two approaches, i.e. *corpus based* and *corpus driven*, are I believe not polar opposites but on a continuum of deductive and inductive approaches to data analysis. As such, I think that corpus linguistics does not necessarily reinforce categories; on the contrary, if used inductively, it can deconstruct and establish a new theory or category as well. It has been pointed out that a corpus-linguistics approach does not aim to replace traditional methods of critical discourse analysis but to supplement and synergize critical discourse studies (Mautner, 2009; Baker, 2011).

3.2.4 Application of corpus-linguistics methodology in this thesis

This thesis explores possible methods to detect both similarities and differences between corpora. In addition, unlike Mulderig (2006), this thesis explores ways to investigate several linguistic features in a corpus. Finally, the study needs a strong empirical basis, based on a rigorous amount of data (for details of my corpus see Chapter 4).

This thesis employs keyword analysis, collocation and concordance analysis, and lexical bundle analysis – a tool that is not frequently used in critical discourse analysis. This thesis will instead focus on the discourse functions of recurrent strings of words in a corpus. I will use lexical bundles in a similar way to word lists, which can provide a general picture of a corpus. Lexical bundles are useful, in that, instead of showing lexis, lexical bundles can shed light on the phraseology of a corpus by showing more contexts, i.e. the phrases in which words appear. Lexical bundles can be a tool to access data and retrieve manageable amounts of information relevant to the study by showing frequent phraseology and the discursive functions it performs. Furthermore, unlike keyword analysis, lexical bundles do not over-emphasize differences and thus they may potentially show the similarities between two sets of data, which is essential for this thesis.

3.3 SITUATING THIS RESEARCH: MARKETIZED DISCOURSE IN THE EDUCATION CONTEXT

This section reviews studies related to the marketization of education that focus on language. The majority of the research is related to higher education, but other levels of education are also reviewed because, after all, education at all levels has been influenced by the policies that introduced market forces into the education sector. As such, the insights from these works may benefit the studies of marketized discourse in the higher education context. In addition, while the scope of the majority of works referred to here is within the UK's educational context, research studies from other countries are also reviewed. This is because the marketization of education is a global phenomenon. Even though there can be contextual influence on the manifestation of this phenomenon, the methodologies and findings of studies in non-UK contexts are useful to this study.

The studies discussed below can be divided into two broad categories. The first strand of research investigates texts about education, such as policy documents (Mulderrig, 2006; Pearce, 2004; Ruth Wodak & Fairclough, 2010), online corpora (Mautner, 2010; Mautner, 2005), news media (Haas & Fischman, 2010; Williams, 2011) books and other published materials (Maringe, 2011; Nordensvärd, 2011; Ritchie, 2002; Urban, 2008). The second category comprises research investigating texts that universities or other academic institutions produce. These consists of several genres: mission statements (Connell & Galasi'nski, 1998; Sauntson & Morrish, 2011; Slater, 2010), websites (Caiazzo, 2011a, 2011b; Chaiyasuk, 2007; Mayr, 2008), prospectuses (Askehave, 2007; Fairclough, 1993; Hui, 2009; Teo, 2007), corporate brochures (Crichton, 2010; Osman, 2008), job advertisements (Fairclough, 1993; Mayr, 2008; Owen, 2004; Xiong, 2012), CVs (Fairclough, 1993), staff training documents (Mayr, 2008), strategy (Mayr, 2008) and pedagogic materials (Wickens, 2000).

These studies approach the marketization of educational institutions from discourse analysis and corpus linguistics perspectives. Only Mautner (2005, 2010) and Wickens (2000) employ both approaches in the data analysis. Within the discourse approach, various analytical frameworks have been applied, and in fact most studies have used multiple analytical frameworks. For instance, Askehave (2007) uses genre theory (Swales, 1990), systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1994) and multimodal analysis (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996) to analyze prospectuses. In his research on the persuasive strategies of British and Thai university websites, Chaiyasuk (2007) uses social actor representation (Van Leeuwen, 1996), appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005), endorsements (Cook, 1992; Tellis, 1998) and multimodal analysis (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996).

Within the corpus approach, works mainly focus on word-based analysis. For example, Caiazzo (2011b) investigates the word 'we' on UK and Indian university websites

and analyzes the transitivity patterns in which ‘we’ occurs. In another paper she looks at ‘national’ and ‘international’ in the same data sets in order to investigate glocalization (Caiazzo 2011a). Sauntson & Morrish (2011) investigate nouns in the wordlist of mission statements of old and new universities in the UK with the intention of establishing how each university distinguishes itself from other institutions, only to find homogeneity between them instead. Mautner (2005, 2010) conducted research on the term ‘entrepreneurial university’. Her corpus study involves investigating the terms ‘enterprise’, ‘enterprising’ and ‘entrepreneurial’ in the Cobuild corpus (http://www.cobuild.collins.co.uk) to examine their semantic prosody in general usage and then looking at ‘entrepreneurial university/ies’ in Webcorp (http://www.webcorp.org.uk/), which is a Web-based concordancer that retrieves instances of words from websites. She then samples a few texts to analyze how the term ‘entrepreneurial university/ies’ is used in context and how it is influenced by the semantic prosody of the word ‘entrepreneurial’ in general usage. Her work is therefore an example of how corpus linguistic methodology can be integrated with manual text analysis. Slater (2010) studied the mission statements of universities and business organizations. He compares each corpus against a general reference corpus and investigates the words ‘we’, ‘research’, ‘product’ and ‘sustainable’ in each corpus to see whether or not they share the same collocates. He also uses the British National Corpus to help interpret the patterns. These previous studies indicate that corpus linguistics is a useful tool for investigating and interpreting data. However, it seems that the strength of corpus linguistics is word-based searching and thus it is more suitable for an in-depth analysis of a term than a more holistic focus that a discourse approach excels at.

The studies that investigate texts about universities, produced by external organizations, such as education policy (Mulderrig, 2006) and news discourse (Williams,

2011; Haas & Fischman 2010) suggest that there is an increase in the commodification of education, with rising competitive ideology in education rhetoric and the construction of students as consumers. I now discuss the findings from these studies below.

Mulderrig (2006) analyzed UK education policy texts from 1972 to 2005 and identifies the discursive construction of education which moves towards education for economic purposes. She conducted a keyword analysis of education policy papers from three prime-ministerial periods and retrieved instances of "we", which is one of the keywords. She classified the processes co-occurring with "we" according to the transitivity system (Halliday, 1994), social actor representation (Van Leeuwen, 1996) and supplemented it with a system that she developed. When analyzing the actions that the government is construed as performing, she found a sharp rise in managerial actions, while schools and teachers were construed as being subject to managerial control. She conducted a further diachronic analysis of these policy papers and identifies a trajectory in which Thatcher questions the accountability of education in order to introduce a paradigm shift towards a marketized model, Major emphasizes competitiveness, while Blair focuses on supplying a skilled workforce to the economy and commodifying education. What is more, she argues that Blair re-defines social inclusion as being able to participate in an economy conflating citizenship with workforce, while rhetorically reducing the government's control over education institutions. Her work therefore shows an increase in mangerialism and competitiveness in education policies.

Wodak and Fairclough (2010) analyzed the Bologna Declaration and how it is transferred to educational policy texts in Romania and Austria. They detected key themes in these texts that are derived from the Bologna Declaration, namely, competitiveness, globalization, a knowledge-based economy, the commodification of education, mobility and

quality assurance. They also argue that the policy documents are replete with business jargon and that the Bologna Declaration is used fallaciously to justify the structural changes within universities.

Mautner (2005, 2010) finds that the coinage of 'entrepreneurial' and 'university' has an underlying capitalist ideology. Quite often universities are described as performing the role of service providers and responding to needs. Business vocabulary is abundant in the texts but there are cases where this term is reinterpreted on a more neutral and non-profit-oriented ground as well. There are cases where 'entrepreneurial university' has negative semantic prosody as webcorp captures criticism of entrepreneurial university/ies. The criticisms are related to concerns over the adoption of capitalist ideology, which contradicts 'traditional academic values' (Mautner, 2005: 106) and the pressure on staff and 'the rash uptake by policy makers' (ibid.).

In news discourse, Haas and Fischman (2010) argue that while different models of higher education exist, economic entrepreneurship is more dominant. Furthermore, the conceptualization of 'education as commodity and universities as commercial enterprises' is more relevant to a public understanding of education than the 'traditional' model of higher education institutions (Haas & Fischman, 2010: 557). Williams (2011) finds that news media often portray students as customers and learning as consuming. Parents are also constructed as co-consumers who take part in buying the products. In addition, news media encourage students to be passive consumers who are encouraged to see education in terms of measurables, such as contact hours rather than opportunities for self-development and independent learning. What is more, the product they seek is a degree to guarantee their employment prospects. She also claims that newspapers often report students rising up against universities and lecturers and arguing in favour of it. In sum, newspaper reports, in

constructing students as consumers, disempower students, turn a complex process of learning into a ‘ticket’ for employment and stir up tensions between students and lecturers (Williams, 2011: 181).

Nordensvard (2011), Maringe (2011), Urban (2008) and Ritchie (2002) undertook metaphor research based on published materials. These studies corroborate Haas & Fischman (2010), in that the business model of higher education is more dominant than the traditional model which Ritchie terms 'UNIVERSITY AS MONASTIC COMMUNITY' (Ritchie, 2002: 45). These studies argue that with their business models universities compete against one another for survival and for the accumulation of capital – students. There is a university factory model (Urban, 2008) which presents students as raw materials, universities as factories and employers as customers. These conceptualizations create ambivalence; for example, students can be customers, raw materials and also profits. Maringe (2011) claims that the STUDENTS AS CUSTOMERS metaphor disempowers students. This is because it presents students as passive receivers of knowledge rather than co-producers of it. All of the authors mention the incompatibility of a business model as it disregards the value of education for its own sake and only favours that which brings economic benefits. However, Ritchie (2002) also notes that the business model reminds academics of their accountability to society for the funding they receive.

The studies on texts produced by external organizations indicate that governments and the media discursively construct both entrepreneurialism and the commodification of education. The business model is a dominant conceptualization of higher education institutions while traditional academic values are marginalized. The media present students and parents as consumers but, as Williams (2011) argues, this disempowers them rather than encouraging them to be agents for change. From the studies mentioned in this section, the

commercialization of education and customerization of students and parents are concepts that seem to be moving towards being 'common sense' – a predominant ideology that is difficult to challenge.

Among the works that investigate the texts produced by academic institutions there is one main claim. That is, academic institutions are becoming more like business organizations. According to Fairclough (1993: 149) there is:

> The fracturing of the boundary between the orders of discourse of higher education and business as regards advertising, and a colonization of the former by the latter.

This means that universities' orders of discourse are being colonized by advertising discourse – a genre which is associated with the orders of discourse of business organizations. As such, promotion and persuasiveness becomes salient features of the discourse produced by academic institutions. Moreover, there is a reduction in the presentation of the authority of academic institutions as well. Some insights are provided by the different analytical frameworks listed above. In what follows, I expand on the findings from different studies that use discourse analytical frameworks to investigate the marketization of education.

Among the studies that investigate texts from a genre perspective, there seems to be a consensus that texts produced by universities serve the purpose of self-promotion and persuasion. Fairclough (1993) analyzed the generic structure of job advertisements from old and new universities. He found that while the job advertisements of the old universities follow a conventional structure, having a heading, position details, salary and application information, the job advertisements of new universities contain 'a catchy advertising-style headline […] and a signature line which identifies the institution with a logo and slogan as

well as its titles' (Fairclough, 1993: 147). The advertisement is structured as a narrative which constructs the institutional identity of the university and potential candidates. It should be noted, however, that Fairclough's work is based on only three job advertisements, so it is different from most genre-based studies which are normally based on a large amount of data. A more recent work by Xiong (2012) is based on 48 job advertisements produced by universities in China. The main claim of this study is that there is a salient attempt to promote the institutions via the establishing-credentials move, to brand the city where a university is located and to reduce the authority of universities via politeness strategies.

Studies on prospectuses (Hui, 2009; Askehave, 2007) identify move structures and find that the main communicative functions of these texts are to promote the institutions and persuade students to apply. Osman (2008) conducted research on the brochures of universities in Malaysia and found promotional moves which are used to brand the institution and construct its corporate identity in a similar way to a corporate advertising genre.

Another framework strand is analysis at a clausal level. This framework is primarily a transitivity system borrowed from systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1994) to deconstruct how institutions, education, staff and students are construed in discourse. Various authors (see for example Crichton, 2010; Fairclough, 1993) argue that, in their data, teaching and learning are often nominalized, with no persons involved in the action, and modified with desirable characteristics, which in turn discursively constructs education as a product with has certain desirable attributes. Fairclough (1993) analyzed his CV for promotion and notes that, having been advised to sell himself, he frequently uses material processes when referring to the duties he performs in order to construe himself as making an active contribution to the department. Askehave (2007) and Hui (2009) found that, according to the actions they are construed as performing, universities are constructed as enablers and service providers,

whereas students are clients. Chaiyasuk (2007) applied social representation theory (Van Leeuwen, 1996) and systemic functional grammar to the analysis of how universities and students are represented on university websites. He argues that the relationship between universities and students is construed as: 1) advertisers and customers, 2) hosts and visitors/ tourists and 3) researchers and research associates. Caiazzo (2011b) analyzed transitivity patterns and the communicative functions of 'we' on university websites. She found instances of 'we' and the processes used for self-promotional purpose resembling a corporate adverting genre. Furthermore, she notes that some instances of 'we' have 'similarities with self promotional claims from the genre of prestige advertising' (Caiazzo, 2011b: 253).

Some of the studies also investigate the interpersonal function of texts, looking at the use of pronouns, mood and modality in data. Overall, studies show that while the texts produced by universities in the past were impersonal, lacking in pronouns but full of impersonal constructions, present-day texts produced by universities contain a higher frequency of pronouns, indicating a rise in the phenomenon called 'synthetic personalization' (Fairclough, 1989 cited in Fairclough, 1993: 141). If we compare the study by Connell & Galasi'nski (1998) with a more recent study by Slater (2010), we can see a contrast in terms of the use of pronouns and the discursive construction of organizational identity in mission statements. While Connell & Galasi'nski found that pronouns are rarely used, rendering statements impersonal, Slater conducted a keyword analysis, comparing universities' mission statements with a reference corpus, and found that 'our' and 'we' are keywords. Regarding the rhetorical function of personal pronouns, Askehave (2007) argues that 'we' is used when presenting academic institutions as being supportive, while 'you' refers to students when they are in the role of beneficiaries. Mayr (2008) analyzed the welcoming message and noted that a text shifts the voice from a serious institutional identity when proclaiming its credentials and

entrepreneurial orientation to a personalized institution, with pronouns, when mentioning the benefits it offers to students. She also points out that the personal pronouns 'we' and 'you' occur frequently in welcoming messages and indicate 'synthetic personalization' (Fairclough, 1989 cited in Mayr, 2008: 32), a strategy which personalizes the institution and persuades potential 'customers' (Mayr, 2008: 32).

With regard to modality and mood, Fairclough (1993), for example, studied old and new prospectuses and noted that while an old one uses obligational modality (such as 'must') when it comes to the requirements for students, a new one seems to avoid using it, representing requirements with graphics instead of overtly stating requirements using obligational modality. In job advertisements, Fairclough (ibid.) notes that the advertisement from a new university prefers the use of modals indicating the future, 'will', to obligational modality. Askehave (2008) notes the imperative clauses in prospectuses which are not employed as commands but instead to attract attention and call for action – a linguistic strategy often found in advertisements.

Another framework which investigates interpersonal meaning is the appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) which has been used by Chaiyasuk (2007) and Morrish & Sauntson (2013). Chaiyasuk analyzed the targets for evaluation using the appraisal framework. Morrish and Sauntson compared the mission statements of five universities in the Russell Group with those of five universities in the Business Alliance Group (http://www.university-alliance.ac.uk/). They found that while the Russell Group universities' mission statements appraise themselves, their research and their teaching, the University Alliance Group's mission statements place more emphasis on local industry, staff, the learning experience and the facilities. In addition, they argue that the Russell Group's mission statements use more of the *appreciation: reaction* category, showing more confidence in their

status. The University Alliance Group's mission statements, on the other hand, use the *appreciation: valuation* category proportionately more, indicating that they make more effort to justify their value. Finally, they claim that evaluative comments are indicative of the marketized discourse and neoliberalism ideology in universities' mission statements, which are not compatible with academic values.

Regarding word choices and the contents of texts, Connell & Galasi'ski (1998), for instance, identified the words 'client', 'clientele' and 'customer' in mission statements. Mayr (2008) notes that the texts she investigated are replete with business lexis and words related to enterprise. The job description of an academic post that she investigated also requires business acumen and uses 'managerialist' terms, such as 'business enhancement', 'income generation' and 'entrepreneurialism' (Mayr, 2008: 38). Slater (2010) discovered that the word 'product' in business mission statements and 'research' in university mission statements share many similar collocates, indicating the commercialization of research. Moreover, he analyzed the term 'sustainable' via Google (www.google.com) and business mission statements which are found mainly in a business context and refer to social responsibility. The word 'sustainable' when used in the mission statements of universities, on the other hand, refers to income generation, indicating that universities are more concerned with finance than business organizations are. These words mirror what other authors in the education literature have noted about the adoption of business jargon within the educational context and 'academic capitalism' (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997).

Sauntson and Morrish (2011) analyzed the word frequency lists of mission statement corpora from three different kinds of universities: 1) Russell Group (large established universities), 2) 1994 group (new research universities) and 3) University Alliance (business-oriented new universities). The analysis focused particularly on nouns. The collocations of

these nouns were then analyzed in terms of the discourses, themes and ideologies that were discursively constructed. They found that students, research and teaching are presented as products, while self-promotion is prevalent across the three subcorpora of mission statements from different kinds of universities. Overall, the analysis revealed that mission statements are used for branding universities and contain vague language, yet they present a corporate image of universities which is glossed with business values. Importantly, they argue that the uniformity of these mission statements contradicts the purpose they serve, i.e. to distinguish one university from another.

Another linguistic feature is attribution, which was only investigated by Wickens (2000) who undertook research on computer-based teaching materials for law undergraduate students as a new pedagogical genre in response to a requirement to teach a large number of students owing to the mass education system. He compares the traditional genres in a law degree. Part of this work involves using a corpus linguistics method to retrieve instances of projection clauses and attribution in different pedagogical genres. He also analyzed spoken interactions during seminars and lectures. The aim was to test the claim that computer-based teaching materials can respond to the social constructivist paradigm in legal studies, where argumentation and negotiation are key epistemological characteristics. He argues that printed teaching materials contain rich attributions of information to sources, which indicates that knowledge involves a process of negotiation and that students can respond or even challenge it. In seminars, he identifies the interactional moves whereby students exchange ideas with lecturers. He argues that computer-based teaching materials, on the other hand, lack citations, they treat knowledge as taken for granted and leave no room for a critical response from students. He argues that computer-based teaching materials contradict the social constructivist approach to learning and reduce learning to memorizing.

In addition to linguistic features, studies have shed light on multimodal aspects as well. Askehave (2007), for instance, notes that international student prospectuses contain several beautiful images of students enjoying outdoor and social activities, but only a few photographs of them actually studying. Chaiyasuk (2007) finds that on the websites there are photographs of people directly gazing at the viewer, directly persuading them to attend those universities, and photographs that show how good the campuses and student life are. Teo (2007) compared the prospectuses from two universities in Singapore. He states that one of the prospectuses is 'redolent of slick, commercial brochures that seek to advertise and sell a product/ service rather than a university prospectus that provides objective information for students' reference' (Teo, 2007: 100).

In summary, there are four main points that the CDA literature has problematized in the marketization of higher education. First, there is a reductionism of people's identity, conflating people with a workforce. Second, business ideologies contradict 'traditional academic values' (Mautner, 2005: 106) and risk alienating staff. Furthermore, the discursive construction of students as customers can disempower students, turning them into passive learners instead of dynamic agents of change and self-development. Finally, the discursive practices of businesses fail to serve their function when adopted into university discourse.

While these studies have made a substantial contribution to the study of marketized discourse in educational institutions, some of them have certain limitations. The claim made by Fairclough (1993) is about the transformation of higher education discourse, and as such it has a diachronic aspect which has been touched on by only a few studies (e.g. Fairclough, 1993; Mulderrig, 2006; Slater, 2010). Furthermore, while studies claim that higher education discourse is becoming more similar to that of business (see for example Caiazzo, 2011b), they have not systematically compared texts from education institutions with those from business

organizations. In addition, corpus linguistic methodology is not widely applied to the study of the marketized discourse of higher education institutions. There are some critical discourse studies that lack a broad empirical basis, being based on only a few cherry-picked examples. Even though, in other genres, studies based on a large amount of data have been conducted, studies on the genre of job advertisements seem to involve a discussion based on only 1–3 texts (see Fairclough, 1993; Mayr, 2008; Owen, 2004), except Xiong (2012), but his work is in the Chinese context.

With the limitations pointed out above, I chose to investigate job advertisements and the justification for this choice is made in the section that follows.

3.4 JOB ADVERTISEMENTS: RATIONALE AND GENRE STATUS

3.4.1 Rationale for choosing job advertisements as data

The genre of job advertisement was selected for four reasons. First, it was a pre-existing genre before marketization policies were implemented. A diachronic comparison of pre- and post-marketization job advertisements may in consequence shed light on the ideological struggles that are instantiated in discourse. Second, producing a job advertisement is a routine activity that universities and other organizations need to do when it comes to recruitment activity (Rafaeli and Oliver, 1998). Given the mundane nature of this activity, job advertisements are potential sites where ideology is naturalized (Fairclough, 2010). Third, while previous CDA studies have investigated other genres (e.g. mission statements, websites, prospectuses, etc.) with a relatively strong empirical basis, research on university job advertisement genres is primarily based on a very small set of data. For instance, Fairclough's (1993) study is based on three job advertisements while Owen (2004) and Mayr (2008) are based on only one job advertisement. The final reason, which is related to the third, is the

availability of a large number of job advertisements online. As there are numerous job advertisements on the Internet, these data are suitable for filling in the empirical gap in previous studies and enhancing the research with quantitative corpus analysis.

3.4.2 Job advertisement genre

To define the genre of job advertisements, it may be helpful to borrow a widely acknowledged definition of genre by Swales (1990) to define this organizational communication genre. According to Swales (1990: 58):

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influence and constrains choices of content and style.

Building on this notion of genre, it seems essential to define the genre of job advertisements based on communicative purposes, the members of the discourse community – who write and read job advertisements – and the content of job advertisements.

According to Rafaeli (2006), the functions of the job advertisement genre are: 1) to recruit new employees, 2) to promote the organizational image and 3) to inform job seekers about employment conditions. The first function of a job advertisement is consistent with (Norlyk, 2006) and Meurs et al. (2006) who state that a job advertisement arises from a vacancy within an organization and thus the organization produces a job advertisement to communicate the vacancy through different channels to attract potential applicants to apply for the job. However, a job advertisement does not only inform the needs but provides a

'forum for organizational self-presentation' (Rafaeli, 2006: 747) and seeks to 'create awareness of the organizations as employers and convey positive cues to job seekers' (Collins & Han, 2004: 689). Moreover, job advertisements can inform future employees of the organizational culture they need to embrace and thus are a form of contractual arrangement (Rafaeli & Oliver, 1998). In addition, Rafaeli (2006) argues that a job advertisement provides a frame of reference for how employment is to be understood by members of society.

In terms of receivers of this genre, a job advertisement is a form of organizational talk (Goffman, 1981 cited in Rafaeli, 2006: 768) in which the primary addressees are job seekers but there are overhearers as well. Rafaeli and Oliver (1998: 346) argue that a job advertisement also addresses:

> [...] the general public (including clients, customers, shareholders, and general spectators); internal or current employees; and other organizations in the environment.

Rafaeli (2006) conducted a survey in Israel and identified three types of audience. The first type consists of job seekers, and for this group job advertisements inform them of employment opportunities and arrangements that are offered in the job market. There are also people who are not looking for a job but try to keep themselves up to date with the labour market condition by surveying job opportunities, the skills and qualities currently in demand and potential employers in the industry (ibid.) Managers who are not looking for a job read job advertisements to learn about their competitors in terms of their employment conditions to see what they compete against.

In answering the question of the authorship of job advertisements, Norlyk (2006) interviewed the company that she studied. She found that job advertisements are firstly

written by administrators in each department. After that, they are revised by a young journalist in charge of external communication. According to Rafael (2006: 759), job advertisements may also be written by marketing or public relation firms.

The content of job advertisements comprises four elements. These include:

1) organizational identity;

2) its human resource needs;

3) information about what is required to fulfil these needs; and

4) information about how to contact the organization. (Rafaeli and Oliver, 1998: 345)

There are, to the best of my knowledge, four studies that empirically investigated move structures in job advertisements using genre analysis (Swales, 1990) as a framework (Gesuato, 2011; Mautner, 2010; Tisapramotkul, 2007; Xiong, 2012). Tisapramotkul (2007) conducted a cross-cultural comparison between job advertisements in British and Thai newspapers. Gesuato (2011) investigated linguist job advertisements on linguistlist.org. Mautner (2010) compared the job advertisements produced by local government published in *The Guardian* newspaper and on its website in 1978 and 2008. Xiong (2012) analysed job advertisements for academic posts in Chinese newspapers. The move structures of job advertisements identified in each study are summarized in Table 3-1. From the table, it is seen that there are overlaps between the studies and the contents of job advertisements proposed by Rafaeli and Oliver (1998). The differences are not surprising, given that Rafaeli and Oliver's category is content-based whereas categories developed by these studies are discourse-based.

(Tisapramotkul, 2007)	(Gesuato, 2011)	(Mautner, 2010)	(Xiong, 2012)
1 Establishing credentials 1.1 Announcing the company's achievements 1.2 Publicizing the company's missions and policies 2 Encouraging prospective candidates 2.1 Announcing availability 2.2 Inviting application 3 Detailing job specifcation 3.1 Describing work scope 3.2 Specifying work location 4 Stating requirements 4.1 Identifying level of education 4.2 Indicating work experience 4.3 Describing required attributes 4.4 Detailing demographic data 5 Offering remuneration 6 Providing application procedures	1. Job essentials 2. Job gist 3. Tasks 4. Requirements 5. Job-description 6. Instructions 7. Policies 8. More-info 9. Employer	1. Job title 2. Salary 3. Description of organization 4. Task involved 5. The necessary qualifications, experience and personal qualities 6. Contact information, instructions on how to apply and the closing date	1. Titling 2. Establishing credentials 2.1 Location and history 2.2 Administrative affiliation and status 2.3 programs and facilities 3. Communicative future aspirations 3.1 Stating goals 3.2 soliciting response 4. Announcing posts and requirements 5. Offering remuneration and incentives 6. Providing contact details

Table 3-1 Move structures of job advertisements in previous studies

The relevant literature provided above (apart from that of Gesuato, Xiong and Mautner) is based on business organizations. There might be differences between public and private organizations in terms of the procedures and policies for job advertisement production. Gesuato's study is based on job advertisements within academia but her work does not focus on a particular country and looks only at linguist jobs. In addition, it does not investigate the background to job advertisement writing either. Contextual information is very important for critical discourse analysis (Wodak and Meyer, 2010), so there is a need to gain more information about how job advertisements are produced in UK universities.

To acquire more background knowledge about job advertisement production in the UK university context, I surveyed the policies and guidelines for job advertisement production on the websites of the universities in my corpus. It should be noted that some universities do not provide this information on their websites and sometimes the information is password protected. I could therefore only search for what information was available on university websites. For the list of the universities that allow public access to their guideline, see Appendix 2. Furthermore, I interviewed an HR officer about the background to job advertisement writing too. It is hoped that this background information can assist in the interpretation of the linguistic features of university job advertisements.

Recruitment advertisement policies and guidelines of universities

The purposes of job advertisements in the UK university context can be illustrated by a quotation from the University of Southampton website which states that the purposes of job advertisement are:

- To fill a vacant post

- To attract the widest number of suitable applicants
- To ensure we fulfil equality and diversity promises
- To take the opportunity to sell the job, School, Department and University nationally and internationally
- To give current employees fair opportunities for progression
- To build up talent banks of prospective employees. (University of Southampton Human Resources, 2012)

From the quotation above, there are themes which are also recurrent among university websites regarding the role of job advertisements. To begin with, job advertisements play a role in fulfilling human resource needs by attracting a pool of applicants. Some universities such as the University of Kent mention that a job advertisement should be cost-effective as well (University of Kent Human Resources, 2013). Second, the universities need to comply with equal opportunity law and job advertisements partly serve to show that universities conform to the law by giving the general public fair access to employment opportunities without favouring any particular group of people. In fact, from the recruitment process perspective, this legal requirement influences the recruitment and selection process as a whole, not just how job advertisements are written. Third, job advertisements are one of the tools to promote the image of universities as employers. Some universities such as University College London do not emphasize this selling opportunity (UCL Human Resources, 2012). Some universities lay a strong emphasis on this function by stating that job advertisements should "project a positive impression of the Faculty/ Department and University by emphasizing the key selling points wherever possible" (University of Surrey, 2010: 9).

Apparently, job advertisements in academia perform two similar functions to the job advertisements in business organizations, namely, attracting applicants and promoting impressive organization management. The latter receives different emphasis from different universities. Equal opportunity law has not been suggested as a communicative function in previous work. It should be noted, however, that this law applies to all types of organizations in the UK, be they public or private. Rafaeli and Oliver (1998) mention in passing about some linguistic features due to this law, but they do not state that it is a function of job advertisements. This may be because they do not focus on any particular context, as equal opportunity law does not exist in many other countries.

I now summarize the procedures of job advertisement production which are posted on websites (for the list of websites see Appendix 2). There are certain processes that are outside the drafting of job advertisements but which are directly relevant to job advertisements. First, a vacancy needs to be set up and receive authorization by a department and the HR directorate. The recruitment managers set the grading of the post in line with their salary grading policy, the selection methods and interview panels. The recruitment managers then draft a job description and a person specification. After that, they decide the media via which the job will be advertised and draft job advertisements. Some universities have templates for jobs (see the University of Exeter template in Appendix 1). Or sometimes the recruitment managers have to provide information to the online recruitment system which will then set the format of job advertisements. The University of Oxford, for instance, has an e-recruitment system called ‘Core' (Personnel Services UAS, 2012a). The e-recruitment system automatically inserts certain information such as an equal opportunity statement into every job advertisement. The recruitment managers can seek assistance from the advertising agency of the university when drafting job advertisements. In some universities, however, the

advertising agency might draft job advertisements based on the details forwarded by the human resources department. The advertisements must then be sent to the human resources department to check the position details and to ensure that the job advertisements do not breach the law. Next, the job advertisements are sent back to the recruitment manager for final approval. Finally, the job advertisements are published on the selected media. They are automatically published on university websites and many universities encourage recruitment managers to publish job advertisements on jobs.ac.uk.

The contents of job advertisements as indicated on university HR webpages are as follows:

1	Employer, including university name and logo
2	Position or job title
3	Salary and other benefits
4	Location
5	Contract and working hours
6	Job details
7	Person specification and selection criteria
8	Closing date and interview dates
9	Further contacts as well as links to other documents such as further particulars
10	Instruction on how to apply
11	Equal opportunity statement

Table 3-2 Job advertisement contents according to HR pages

It should be noted that some universities may have a specific phrase for the information above. An example of a salary format from the University of Oxford is 'Salary in the range of £xx,xxx – £xx,xxx p.a.' (Personnel Services UAS, 2012b). In addition the equal opportunities statement for academic posts at the University of Oxford is 'Applications are particularly welcome from women and black and minority ethnic candidates who are under-represented in academic posts in Oxford' (ibid.).

Apart from the content, some universities provide language style guides. The length of job advertisements, for instance, is specified by some universities. According to the Oxford University Guide to Effective Recruitment Advertising (Personnel Services UAS, 2012b), a job advertisement should be no longer than 250 words, excluding salary, further contacts and how to apply. In job advertisements for the University of Exeter (see Appendix 1), a job advertisement that will be published on jobs.ac.uk should not exceed 540 words (University of Exeter, 2012). According to the University of Surrey's Recruitment Code of Practice (University of Surrey, 2010: 9), advertisements must not exceed 140 words. Secondly, inclusive language must be used to avoid statements that may favour a particular group of people (University of Strathclyde, 2012). Finally, universities promote the use of plain language when writing job advertisements. For instance, the University of Oxford Guide to Effective Recruitment Advertising encourages the use of 'short sentences and short bite-sized paragraphs'. In addition, the guide suggests the use of 'you' instead of 'the successful candidate' because it is 'softer', will 'appeal more to the job seekers', 'gets the readers involved' and 'helps people visualize themselves in the role' (ibid.)

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have argued that CDA offers a theory to conceptualize the marketization of higher education from a discourse perspective. The investigation of linguistic features from a CDA perspective has the potential to reveal a trace of how business ideology influences universities' discursive practices. Corpus linguistic methodology can strengthen the empirical basis and quantitative analysis of this study by illuminating the pervasiveness of this phenomenon across a large corpus. The genre of job advertisements was chosen. The background to how job advertisements are produced and received has been investigated from

previous research, along with interviews with HR personnel and policies, which will serve as a guide for the interpretative process during data analysis.

While Fairclough's Dialectical-Relational Approach to Critical Discourse Analysis offers a theory to conceptualize social institutional change and discursive practices, it does not include an analytical framework to describe linguistic patterns. The next chapter follows up with a brief description of the parameters for the linguistic analysis and data collection processes. A more detailed account of each analytical framework is provided in each analytical chapter (Chapters 5, 6 and 7).

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORKS

This chapter reports on the data employed in this research and offers an overview of the methodology used. Section 4.1 describes and justifies the data sources. Section 4.2 explains the data collection procedures and the software used. Section 4.3 gives a brief account of some quantitative information about the data. Section 4.4 provides an outline of the research design and the analytical frameworks which are deployed in this research.

4.1 DATA CHOICES

As explained in previous chapters, my aim is to collect a corpus of university job advertisements and a comparable corpus of business / private sector advertisements. In fact, I narrowed the second of these down to advertisements from the financial service industry. I selected the financial service industry as a representative of businesses because universities and financial services are both in the service sector. Furthermore, according to the FTSE index, this is the sector that makes the highest net market capital (FTSE 100 the Index Company, 2010), making it, arguably, the most influential business

Regarding the data source, there are various possible sources of data. Job advertisements can be found on companies' and the universities' websites. However, some companies and universities have only a few job vacancies, which poses a difficulty to the compilation of a reasonable size of corpus for quantitative analysis. Another possible source of data is online job advertising websites or job boards which carry a large number of job ads and thus are more likely to yield a sufficient number of advertisements for corpus analysis.

After considering a range of possibilities, jobs.ac.uk was selected as a source of data for university job advertisements and eFinancialCareers.com was chosen as being representative of financial job advertisements. These choices are based on the impact of these websites. Jobs.ac.uk is very popular for academic-related careers (Alljobsuk, 2010a). Initiated by the University Advertising Group in 1998, it has over 600,000 jobseekers each month and accounts for 15 per cent of job appointments (jobs.ac.uk, 2010). A survey of recruitment policies in many universities (see Chapter 3) also indicates that all the jobs from each university are generally posted on this website. Regarding eFinancialcareers.com, it has more than 140 recruitment agencies posting job advertisements and a very large number of financial services job advertisements around the world (Alljobsuk, 2010b). Furthermore it was the winner of the 2007 National Online Recruitment Awards (NORA) (1job.co.uk, 2010). Given their influence and the substantive data they offer, these two job websites seem to be suitable sources of data.

For job advertisements prior to the marketization of higher education, it is unfortunate that online job advertisements were not available in the 1970s. Consequently, job advertisements from newspapers were selected as a data source because this was the primary means of advertising a vacancy to the public in the past. A broad equivalent of each website was then determined. An equivalent of job.ac.uk seems to be job adverts in the Times Higher Education Supplement which advertises a number of academic posts each week. For financial job advertisements, the Sunday Times was chosen as a source because there were far more job advertisements in it than in the Times, and because it is a weekly newspaper, similar to the Times Higher Education Supplement.

4.2 DATA COLLECTION AND ANNOTATION

3,000 job advertisements from each website were downloaded, using Wget software (GNU, 2010). At jobs.ac.uk, jobs advertisements needed to be downloaded on two occasions (1 December 2010 and 4 September 2011) since number of job advertisements were much lower than that of the eFinancialCareers website whose job advertisements were downloaded on 2 December 2010. Thus 1,500 job advertisements from each set form a corpus of academic recruitment advertisements. Sixty job advertisements from each corpus were randomly sampled for manual text analysis. To do so, the job advertisements are numbered and ordered. Then I randomly selected 1 job advertisements from every 50 job advertisements.

60 job advertisements published between 1971 and 1974 were randomly selected from each newspaper. These four years were chosen because they are before the marketization policy in the UK was implemented and data from a four-year period might minimise the impact of idiosyncratic features of job ads in any particular year. In addition, the Equal Opportunities law was passed in 1975 which might have had an impact on the way job advertisements were written. This change may affect the homogeneity of pre-marketization data; consequently job ads from the mid-1970s onwards were not selected.

Each set of job advertisements is not homogenous but consists of advertisements for a variety of jobs; for example, university advertisements may be for professors, managers, or technicians, among others. It is important to have a sense of the proportion of job categories in my data. Since the 2010s data-sets are very large, so that it is not feasible to identify the frequency of each job type, the sub-samples of the 2010s data and the 1970s data were examined to provide a frequency breakdown of each job category in each subsample. Given the representativeness of the sub-samples it may be argued that they reflect the proportion of the whole corpora. The detailed summary of job categories and the position titles of each

advertisement are offered in Appendix 3. It should be noted that this study did not use stratified random sampling technique; thus, the proportion of advertisements from different job categories was not set when the data were collected.

After being downloaded with Wget software, the job advertisements from the websites were found to contain a lot of markup information. For corpus analysis, irrelevant markup information needed to be removed. A text editor software program, Edit Pad Pro (http://download.cnet.com/EditPad-Pro/3000-2351_4-10065329.html), was used to clean up the data and also to annotate essential metadata using the 'find and replace' function. Regular expressions were exploited to identify instances of irrelevant markup information which was then replaced with empty space. However, an original copy of all the selected data was made because texts for manual analysis should remain as shown on the websites.

In addition, the date, website URL and e-mail address in each job advertisement were replaced with 'ddmmyy', 'web' and '$webmail$', respectively, because the differences between each date, website URL and e-mail address are not relevant to the analysis. Also, this information can have an impact on lexical bundle analysis. This is because if they are left as they are, their clustering with certain phraseology will be missed (e.g. 'please go to web').

4.3 FREQUENCY DESCRIPTION OF THE CORPORA

This section provides frequency information about the university job corpus and the financial job corpus. The frequency information of each corpus is shown in Table 4-1, below.

Frequencies\Corpus	**University**	**Financial**
Word types	19,754	15,282
Word tokens	887,560	970,030
word type/token ratio	0.022	0.016

Table 4-1 Frequency information for each corpus

From the table, it can be seen that while the university job corpus is smaller in size (887,560 tokens vs 970,030 tokens), it has a higher number of distinct word types (19,754 vs 15,282). As such, the value of the word type/token ratio in the university job corpus is higher than in the financial job corpus. This seems to suggest that university job advertisements have more lexical diversity than financial job advertisements and that financial job advertisements are more formulaic than university job advertisements. This possibility is explored further below.

In addition to type/token frequency, I also calculated type/token growth and plotted it on a graph as shown in Figure 4-1. This process is known as lexical closure (McEnery & Wilson, 2001: 166). The purpose of lexical closure plotting is to see the degree of diminishing effect on the increase in distinct word types when more data are added. A lower degree of type/token growth means a higher degree of closure. As such, it indicates whether the sublanguage under investigation is more restricted and uses a more limited lexicon.

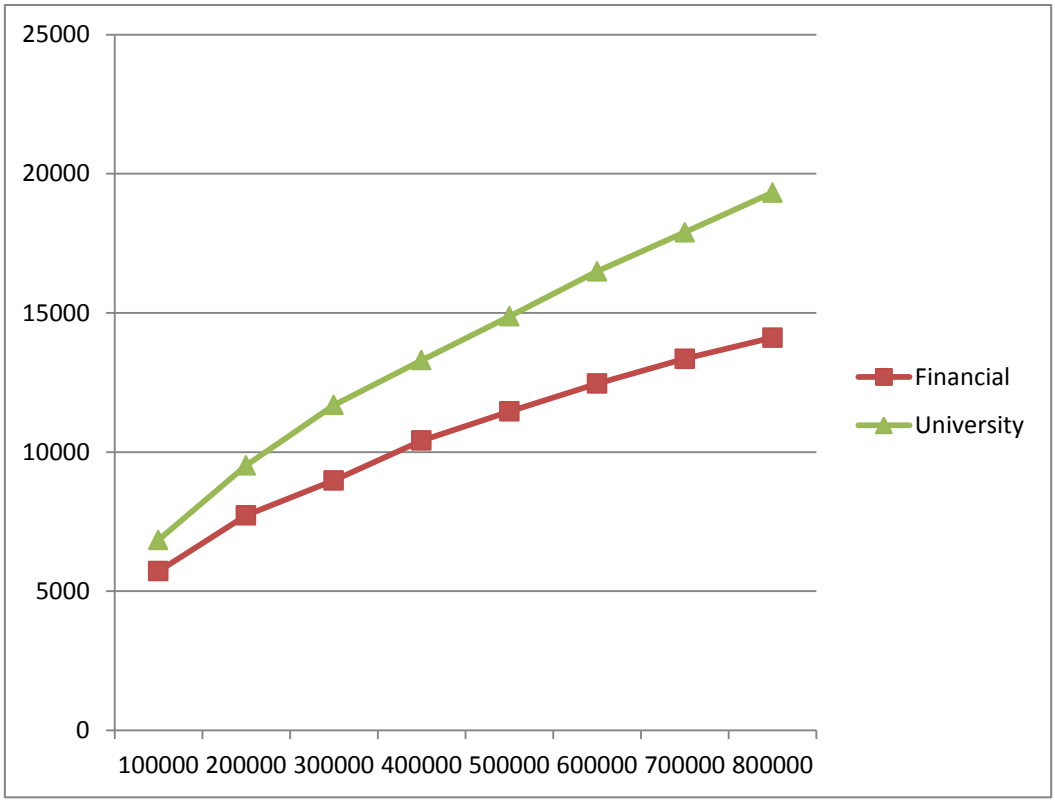


Figure 4-1 Type/token growth of each corpus

To prepare the data, I put the corpus into a long format with each word on one line and deleted all the numbers. I divided each corpus into different sets of data. The first contains 100,000 word tokens. The second contains the data of the first set with another 100,000 word tokens from the corpus added. This incremental pattern was repeated throughout the process to determine the type/token growth from 100,000 to 800,000 words (this upper limit was due to the fact that the university job corpus only contains around 800,000 words). Then, each data set was uploaded into Wordsmith Tools (Scott, 2008) and the number of word types was calculated. From the above figure, it is apparent that the financial job corpus has a higher degree of closure because the type/token growth rate is lower than that of the university job corpus. This further supports the claim that the university job corpus has more lexical diversity than the financial job corpus.

Another type of frequency information was also identified, i.e. 4-grams and lexical bundles. The frequency of 4-grams might indicate the degree to which each corpus contains repeated phrases. Four-word lexical bundles are repeated 4-grams which, in this study, occur more than 80 times per million words. Table 4-2 shows the frequency information for 4-grams in each corpus.

Frequency\corpus	**University**	**Financial**
4-gram types	421,590	560,499
4-gram tokens	709,653	785,546
4-gram type/token ratio	0.59	0.71
4-word lexical bundle percentage	4.661%	1.104%
4-word lexical bundle type percentage	0.067%	0.008%

Table 4-2 Frequency information of 4-grams

From the above table, the 4-gram frequency information shows a different trend, thereby contradicting my above speculation about financial job advertisements being more formulaic than university job advertisements. Given that lexical bundles and 4-grams represent repeated phrases in a corpus, the fact that the 4-gram type/token ratio is lower in the university job corpus shows that it has more repetitive phrases, and thus is more formulaic than the financial job corpus. The values of the 4-gram and 4-gram type percentages seem to support this argument, because they suggest that the university job corpus contains a larger proportion of repeated 4-grams than the financial job corpus does.

These figures are conflicting, because the type/token ratio of individual words indicates that the university job corpus is more lexically diverse (see Table 4-1), whereas the type-token ratio for 4-grams indicates that the financial job corpus is more diverse (see Table 4-2). This might be explained by the fact that the texts in the financial job corpus are more domain specific than in the university job corpus. The financial job corpus comprises financial financial job advertisements, whereas the university job corpus is composed of job

advertisements from various disciplines, including life sciences, engineering, arts and humanities and the social sciences. As a consequence, the university job corpus covers a wider domain and contains technical terms from various disciplines, resulting in a higher number of word types. By way of illustration, an extract from a job advertisement is provided below:

Ex.1 This Research Associate position will investigate mechanisms of ***nuclear receptor*** *action in breast cancer, particularly centred on* ***chromatin immunoprecipitation*** *and* ***microarray*** *studies to identify target genes and will be involved in the development of new* ***inhibitors*** *of* ***nuclear receptors*** *implicated in breast cancer, their evaluation as cancer* ***therapeutics*** *[…]*

For informal enquiries, please email Professor Simak Ali ($WEBMAIL$) or Dr Laki Buluwela ($WEBMAIL$) […] (U2010s 375)

(Emphasis added)

Apparently, there is plenty of scientific terminology in this job advertisement, e.g. nuclear receptors, chromatin, immunoprecipitation and microarray. The technical terminology from various disciplines may increase the word types. In addition, there is a proper name, the name of the contact person, and the university address too. As will be discussed in Chapter 5, university job advertisements show contact details much more frequently than financial job advertisements do because business job websites contain an 'apply now' tab which links to the application page. When looking at low frequency words ($n \leq 10$), the university job advertisements contain 15,612 word types, which occur 10 times or fewer, while the financial job advertisements contains 11,035 word types of this kind. It is likely therefore that the technical terms and proper names in university job advertisements result in a high number of word types.

4.4 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

This section gives an overview of the methodology and the analytical frameworks used in this study. A more detailed description of the procedures and of each analytical framework is provided in each of the analysis chapters (Chapters 5, 6 and 7). This study aims to investigate whether there is a trend in which university discourse becomes more similar to business discourse.

This thesis combines corpus linguistics and critical discourse analysis to shed light on how marketization manifests itself in the linguistic features of job advertisements of UK universities. The job advertisements of UK universities and financial services organizations were compared synchronically and diachronically via the use of corpus analysis software and a close reading of texts. The research design can be conceptualized as shown in Figure 4-2, below.

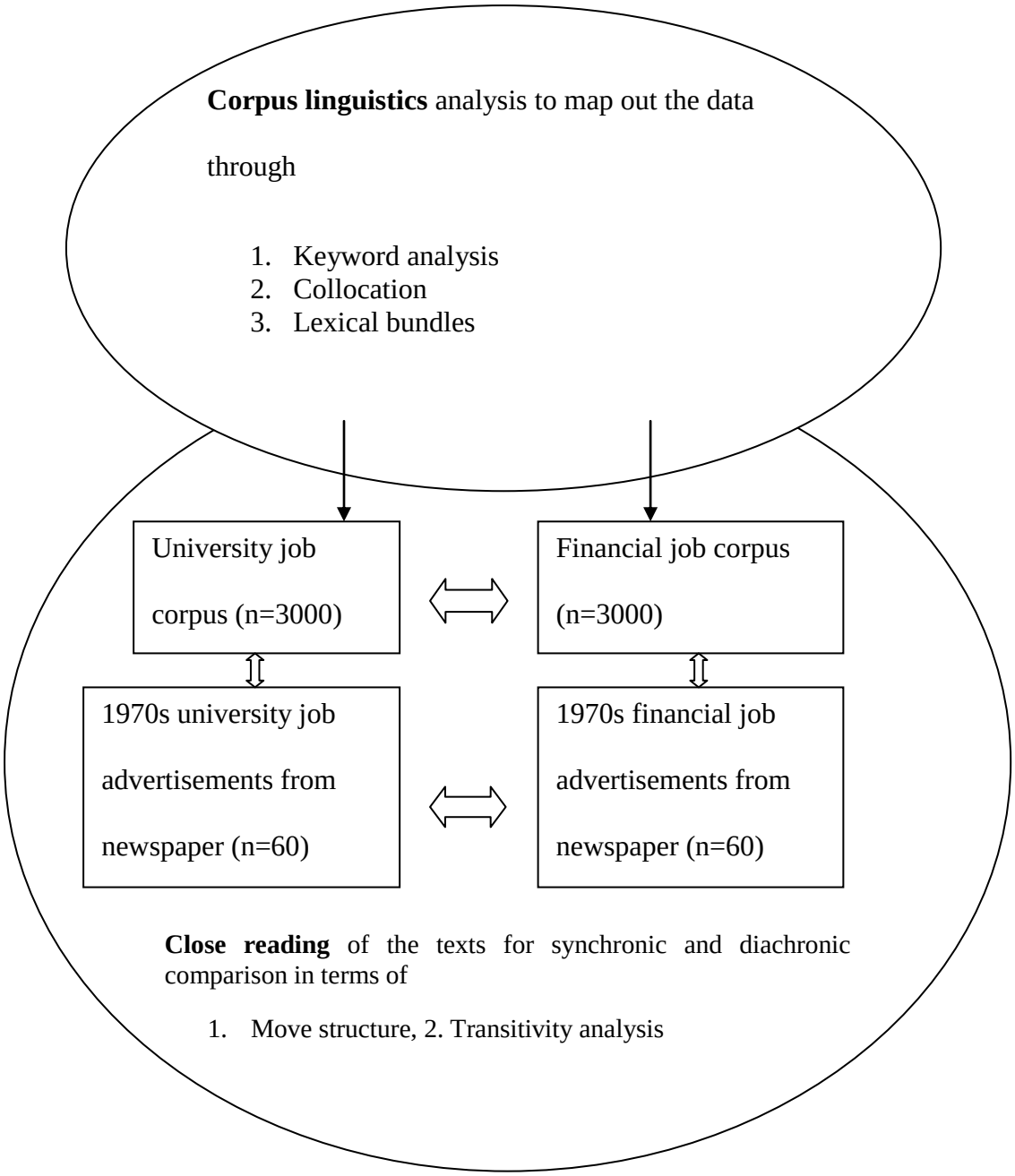


Figure 4-2 Research design

The corpus linguistic analysis aims to capture the prominent linguistic features of university and financial job advertisements, or in Baker et al.'s words: to 'provide a general pattern map of data'(Baker et al., 2008: 295). This was done through the analysis of keyword, collocation and lexical bundles. The collocation analysis particularly focused on two main

social actors in recruitment discourse: employer organizations and applicants. More details about how I generated the search terms for these two social actors are reported in Section 5.2.2.

A close reading of the advertisements involved a synchronic and diachronic comparison of university and financial job advertisements. The 2010 university and financial job advertisements were sampled from the large corpus of job advertisements. The number of advertisement samples matched the 1970s data. At this point, one may wonder whether the smaller sample is representative of the larger corpus. Table 4-3 shows the top 20 words of the original corpora and of the subsamples.

University corpus	**Sampled University**	**Financial corpus**	**Sampled Financial**
THE	THE	AND	AND
AND	AND	THE	THE
OF	OF	TO	TO
TO	TO	OF	OF
A	A	A	A
IN	IN	IN	IN
FOR	FOR	WITH	WITH
WILL	RESEARCH	FOR	FOR
BE	WILL	BUSINESS	IS
IS	BE	IS	BUSINESS
RESEARCH	IS	WILL	WILL
OR	OR	MANAGEMENT	BE
WITH	UNIVERSITY	BE	TEAM
AND	AN	EXPERIENCE	MANAGEMENT
ARE	WITH	AN	AN
YOU	ON	TEAM	EXPERIENCE
ON	ACADEMIC	ON	INVESTMENT
AT	ARE	AS	ON
THIS	AT	OR	OR
HAVE	YOU	YOU	AS

Table 4-3 Top 20 wordlists of original corpora and sampled texts

From Table 4-3, it can be seen that the words in the lists are similar, though with slightly different orders (e.g. the word 'research' in the whole corpus and the subsample). Furthermore, I determined the correlation between the top 100 words in each corpus. There is a strong correlation between each corpus and its subsample ($r = .897$, $p < .01$ for the university job data; $r = .826$, $p < .01$ for the financial job data). The correlation between the rank order of the most frequent words in the corpus and the subsample suggests that the findings from the subsample might be extrapolated, with a degree of confidence, i.e. the correlation suggests that the smaller sample has some reliability – a reliability which I refer as implicational reliability. In consequence, there seems to be an implicational reliability that the linguistic features in sampled job advertisements are largely similar to what we would find in the original corpora.

Regarding the analysis, the manual comparison is based on two overarching frameworks: genre theory (Bhatia, 2004) and the transitivity analysis of words referring to employer organizations and applicants. Genre theory was employed to deconstruct the generic structure of job advertisements: one of the crucial linguistic features that characterize the genre (Swales, 1990, 2004). The analysis also reveals the interdiscursivity which indicates the influence of other genres and discourses on job advertisements. What is more, I identified two genres embedded within job advertisements. These are employer profiles and employer videos. These two genres are analyzed, using multimodal analysis, and discussed further in Section 6.4.

Transitivity analysis was used to deconstruct how employer organizations and applicants are represented in job advertisements. I read the job advertisements to identify instances where employer organizations and applicants are mentioned. After that, I classified the actions and attributes assigned to words referring to employer organizations and

applicants. The classification scheme was on both process types in systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) and on the meaning group of the actions or attributes. For more details, please refer to Section 7.1.

The use of different methodologies serves a triangulation purpose. Each method has its own strengths and weaknesses, and thus I hope to maximize their strengths to supplement each other. While a corpus linguistic approach excels at word-based and phraseological analysis, it does not lend itself well to the analysis of texts' generic structures. A genre-based analysis can capture generic structures but cannot cast light on the representation of organizations and applicants – a task left to transitivity analysis. Both genre and transitivity analyses limit the size of the data, whereas a corpus linguistic approach allows investigation into a large data set. As such, I decide to use each approach in order to see different aspects of marketized discourse and to check whether a similar trend might emerge and what that trend is.

CHAPTER 5 CORPUS ANALYSIS: MAPPING THE DATA

This chapter centres on the corpus linguistic analysis of university and financial job advertisements. It starts with a quantitative description of the corpora before moving on to keyword, collocation and lexical bundle analysis. The synchronic comparison of university and financial job advertisements aims to identify salient linguistic features which may function as self-promotional and job selling tools. In some cases, the analysis also draws on the findings from Chapter 7, which discusses the diachronic comparison of job advertisements. The purpose of keyword and collocation analysis is to analyze the values associated with the organizational image that advertisers construct in discourse. This in turn indicates whether academic institutions and business organizations hold similar or different values and identities. The purpose of lexical bundle analysis is to investigate the phraseology of university and financial job advertisements, which may cast light on the communicative functions of job advertisements. This chapter will argue that: 1) there is a convergence between the values and identities of academic institutions and business organizations; and 2) promotion and persuasion are becoming a crystallized ideology in universities' recruitment discourse.

5.1 KEYWORD OVERVIEW

The first approach, a keyword analysis, is conducted with each corpus being compared against the BNC written sub-corpus with Wmatrix in order to determine its saliency in relation to general written language. There are 2,583 words in the university job corpus and 2,497 words in the financial job corpus that have a significant keyness value ($p < 0.0001$). Some of special characters such as ddmmyy and web (for more explanation see Section

4.2) are excluded. Due to such a large number of keywords, not all of them can be analyzed, let alone presented. The top 40 keywords are shown in Table 5-1, below.

University	Financial
research	experience
will	business
please	management
applications	team
post	risk
experience	client
closing_date	and
teaching	investment
salary	skills
phd	role
email	full_time
and	financial
department	permanent
apply	clients
university	strong
project	knowledge
reference	global
sciences	credit
or	within
further	ability
contact	analyst
applicants	will
academic	senior
application	reporting
application_form	working
details	excellent
engineering	finance
successful	trading
faculty	manager
per_annum	support
ref	bank
informal	equity
skills	banking
for	UK-London
professor	understanding
relevant	leading
lecturer	candidate
enquiries	key
website	analysis
development	product

Table 5-1 Top 40 keyword list in university and financial job corpus

The lists in the table give the impression that the two corpora are very different from each other because only four words appear on both lists: ‘will’, ‘and’, ‘experience’ and ‘skills’, which are mostly related to duties and qualifications. Other words tend to be domain specific such as: ‘research’, ‘teaching’ and ‘university’ in the university job corpus; ‘business’, ‘client’ and ‘bank’ in the financial job corpus. Both corpora contain a word referring to applicants, i.e. ‘applicant’ in the university job corpus and ‘candidate’ in the financial job corpus. In both corpora, there are also words related to duties and requirements. In the university job corpus, examples include ‘experience’, ‘phd’ and ‘teaching’. In the financial job corpus, examples are ‘skills’, ‘role’ and ‘knowledge’. The university job corpus contains far more words related to the application process, such as ‘closing date’, ‘apply’ and ‘application form’. In the financial job corpus, there are evaluative words such as ‘excellent’ and ‘leading’, indicating the presence of promotional features in financial job advertisements.

From the top 40 keywords lists, there are very few lexical items that index a marketization discourse. This would appear to contradict previous studies, such as Fairclough (1993) and Mayr (2008), to name but two. However, further down the list of the university job corpus, there are words such as ‘excellent’ (56th on the list) and ‘international’ (72nd on the list) which are used in many cases to promote the organization, as shown in the sample concordances below:

an MSc at King 's College London have	excellent	employment prospects ; King 's ranks in
last RAE and is recognised for providing an	excellent	environment for research in psychology .
ionally excellent . The History team has an	excellent	reputation for teaching and was ranked
teaching in UK higher education . We offer	excellent	benefits including a final slary pension
nd teaching strengths in marine science and	excellent	facilities including Oceanlab which has

Table 5-2 Sample concordances of 'excellent' in the university job corpus

earch in the group which has earned it an	international	reputation (for more information sees
Background City University London is an	international	University committed to academic exc
committed to building on our national and	international	research reputation and , in the last 12
successful candidate will join a thriving	international	genomics facility based at The Roslin
Development Planning Unit (DPU) is an	international	centre specialising in academic

Table 5-3 Sample concordances of 'international' from the university job corpus

This finding indicates a limitation of keyword analysis. The keyword list of each corpus is exhaustive, consisting of thousands of words. Investigating them all would be too labour-intensive. However, in limiting the number of words on the list to be investigated, one runs the risk of missing important findings that appear further down the list.

In addition, there are other plausible explanations for why evaluative terms do not appear in the top 40 keywords list of the university job corpus. First, the university job corpus contains specific terms related to the institutions, namely ‘university’, ‘department’ and faculty’, which need to be mentioned in job advertisements. The financial job advertisements, on the other hand, mention only the name of the organization such as ‘Santander’ or ‘JP Morgan’. In consequence, the high frequency of these institutional reference terms in the university job corpus pushes the less frequent evaluative terms down the keyword list.

Another explanation is that evaluative terms are varied. Sometimes, there are many evaluative terms that share one meaning and, for a stylistic reason, advertisers use a variety of terms to avoid repetition. As a result, the evaluative terms will have low keyness value and they will occur lower down the list. However, once these words are combined, their keyness

will rise and they will move up the list. This phenomenon is in fact mentioned in Baker's article (2004: 353) as follows:

> However, low-frequency keywords may be useful in that they can often be combined into similar categories of meaning or function. For example, as well as *bloated*, the words *fat*, *thick*, *huge*, *massive*, and *bulging* are also key in the gay texts, all serving very similar uses. When the frequencies of these words are added together, their cumulative keyness increases.

Consequently, keyword analysis needs to be supplemented by other approaches. There are two approaches that I adopt. First is the collocation analysis of evaluative words that co-occur with institutional terms in each corpus. Second is lexical bundle analysis.

5.2 COLLOCATION ANALYSIS OF EVALUATIVE ADJECTIVES

This section first provides a rationale for investigating evaluative language and an overview of relevant theories. Then, it describes the procedure and findings from the investigation of evaluative terms that co-occur with organizational reference terms. This starts with how I generated terms related to institution. After that, the collocates identified are reported and categorized into semantic groups, followed by a statistical comparison and interpretation.

5.2.1 Rationale and theories of evaluative language

The analysis of evaluative language is, potentially, a useful tool for investigating the marketized discourse of universities' job advertisements. The rationale for investigating evaluative language derives from its socially-situated nature. According to Hunston (1994),

evaluative language "expresses an attitude towards a person, situation or other entity and is both subjective and located within a societal value-system" (Hunston, 1994: 210). As such, evaluative language also indexes the values held by social groups. Given its social nature, evaluative language can cast light on the underlying value systems of academic institutions and business organizations. That is, apart from a surface linguistic comparison, the analysis has implications as to whether academic institutions adopt the value systems that belong to, or are associated with, business organizations. If the analysis indicates that these different types of organizations do indeed share common value systems, it may indicate that academic institutions are influenced by business ideology and discursive practices.

Another rationale derives from the relation between evaluative language and promotional discourse. As Fairclough (1993) argues, within the order of discourse of universities, increasing marketization has made promotional discourse more salient. Bhatia (2004) argues that in promotional discourse, "product differentiation" is a key strategy and that:

> [...] the most common form of product differentiation is achieved by offering a product description which is good, positive and favourable […] it is the generic values of description and evaluation which are most often called upon to serve the cause of millions of products and services across the corporate world. (Bhatia, 2004: 211)

Thus evaluative language represents one of the predominant strategies used in promotional discourse, and given this prominence it deserves further investigation.

Hunston (2011) documents two approaches to the study of evaluative language. On the one hand, there are studies which have looked at the linguistic strategies used in

evaluation – e.g. Hyland's (1998) study of metadiscourse in CEO letters. The other approach concerns the study of value systems that underpin evaluation (e.g. Martin and White 2005) – an approach which Bednarek (2008) refers to as a *parameter-based framework*. Given that this study is focused on the value systems which manifest themselves in the language of job advertisements, I assessed established *parameter-based frameworks* in order to gauge their suitability for my data.

There are studies that approach evaluative language by looking at the semantic categories of evaluative lexis and identifying values that are used as criteria to evaluate objects or entities. A number of studies have established broad categories for evaluative parameters but the data are mainly derived from academic texts (Biber & Finegan, 1988; Conrad & Biber, 2000) and news (Bednarek, 2008; Francis, 1995; Lemke, 1998). Thompson and Hunston arrived at four parameters for evaluation (Thompson & Hunston, 2000) but without support from large data. These are: *good-bad/ positive-negative, certainty, expectedness/ obviousness* and *relevance/ importance* (ibid.: 22). A more recent work which has been applied widely and has developed a very detailed classification is Martin and White (2005). The framework is based on various text types such as news and literary texts. Each framework has different labelling for each category, but Bedanrek (2008) argues that the classifications correspond to each other, as shown in Table 5-4, below, which is adapted from Bednarek (2008: 22).

Appraisal (Martin and White 2005)	**Francis (1995)**	**Thompson & Hunston (2000)**	**Conrad & Biber (2000)**	**Biber & Finegan (1988)**	**Lemke,(1998)**	**Parameter-based framework**
Attitude	rationality value/appropriacy	positive/negative parameter	attitudinal stance	*amazingly* adverbials: expressing attitudes towards the content independent of its epistemological status	desirability/inclination	emotivity
·Affect ·Judgement ·Appreciation						(mental state)
	predictability			*actually* adverbials: expressing actuality, emphasis, greater certainty/truth than expected	ususality/expectability	expectedness
	obviousness	expectedness/obviousness		*maybe* adverbials: expressing possibility, likelihood, questionable assertions, hedging	comprehensibility/obviousness warrantability/probability	comprehensibility evidentiality
Engagement	truth modality	certainty	epistemic stance	*surely* adverbials: expressing conviction or certainty		reliability
	importance	relevance/importance			importance/significance	importance
			style stance	*honestly* adverbials: expressing manner of speaking		style
				generally adverbials: expressing approximation, generalisation		
		ability			normativity/appropriateness	possibility/necessity
					humorousness/seriousness	seriousness
graduation ·force ·focus						reliability/style

Table 5-4 Comparison of parameter-based framework to evaluative language adapted from Bednarek (2008: 22)

It seems that Bednarek and the authors mentioned earlier aim to develop a broad category of evaluation. While a broad category has strength in that it can be applied to many contexts, it seems too broad to cast light on the issue of marketization which is the focus of my research. It should also be noted that many studies are based on news or academic genres, and as such the frameworks might be influenced by the data on which each study is based. My thesis is based on job advertisements which would be classified as a business genre. Given the different genres, these existing frameworks are not entirely applicable to my data.

Apart from genres, the focus of evaluation is an issue in terms of how each analytical framework can be extrapolated. For instance, Francis (1995) looks at how propositions are evaluated. On the other hand, Bednarek looks at all aspects: "participants, processes, circumstances, events, actions, entities, states of affairs, situations, discourse etc., in short, everything that can be evaluated" (Bednarek, 2008: 13). Owing to the different objects of evaluation, the frameworks might not be applicable to the analysis of organizational descriptions.

I looked at the works by Hunston (1993) and Hyland and Tse (2009) which aim to create a classification of evaluation that is more localized and specific and they turned out to be more useful. One of the earliest studies is Hunston's work on evaluative language in scientific research articles where she identifies five evaluative parameters: *accuracy*, *consistency*, *verity*, *simplicity* and *usefulness* (Susan Hunston, 1993). Hyland and Tse conducted research on the evaluative language of journal descriptions (Hyland & Tse, 2009). They compiled a 42,000-word corpus of journal descriptions from four disciplines: biology, engineering, applied linguistics and sociology. They then used WordSmith Tools (Scott, 2004) to generate a word list which they searched for words with evaluative meanings. They

identified five semantic categories of evaluation. These are: *reach, novelty, ranking, importance* and *scholarliness*.

The more localized and specific categories like those of Hunston (1993) and Hyland and Tse (2009) are not entirely applicable either, but the idea of developing a category that would capture the focus of research and have explanatory power for a specific context is attractive. This is because this thesis is based on a very specific genre of job advertisements and focuses on identifying the values associated with marketization. In addition, Hyland and Tse's classification is on the border between academic and business discourse and some of the categories seem to be relevant to my work, such as *reach* and *novelty*.

As such I developed my own categories based on the evaluative adjectives identified in the corpora and analysed them in terms of the underlying value systems and the discursive construction of the organizational image of these two organizations. The analysis aims to answer RQ 1.1, which asks:

What are the similarities and differences between university and financial job advertisements in terms of the representation of employer organizations and applicants?

In this section, I will address the representation of employer organizations first. The research question given above is too broad. To be more specific in the analysis of evaluative adjectives co-occurring with employer organizations, I expand on this research question. The following research questions were therefore posed:

1. What are the evaluative adjectives used to describe employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements, and what evaluative resources do they constitute?

2. What are the similarities or differences between the evaluative adjectives used to describe employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements?
3. What are the similarities or differences in the emphasis of the evaluative resources used to describe employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements?

These questions aim to deconstruct the organizational images that the adjectives present and also the underlying value system pertaining to desirable organizations. It is hypothesized that there will be some overlap, but also some differences, between the evaluative resources ascribed to employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements. This analysis will shed light on the question of whether or to what degree UK universities take on the identities of business organizations.

5.2.2 Procedures: employer organisations

To compile the list of words referring to these organizations, I first extracted all nouns related to the semantic domain of the organizations in question. To do this, I uploaded each corpus into Wmatrix (Rayson 2008), Web-based corpus-analysis software. This software has CLAWS, a part-of-speech tagger, and USAS, semantic-annotation software, embedded in it. I then looked at the semantic domains potentially relevant to the employer organizations in order to identify relevant search terms.

In the case of the university job corpus, the semantic tag *P1 Education in General* was investigated to retrieve the words that refer to educational institutions. In the case of the financial job corpus, the semantic tags that were inspected included: *I2.2 Business: Selling*; *I2.1 Business: Generally*; *I1.1 Money and Pay* and *I3.1 Work and Employment: Generally*. The words related to organizations and their frequencies are shown in Table 5-5, below:

University	Frequency
university	2147
school	1466
college	926
universities	289
business_school	208
schools	164
university_college	153
colleges	97
business_schools	39
faculties	38
institutes	8
university_departments	8
university_department	6
college_of_technology	4
art_school	4
university.	2
agricultural_college	2
school.	1
engineering_school	1

Financial	Frequency
client	3981
clients	2550
company	816
firm	628
companies	260
employer	237
employment_agency	194
firms	141
corporation	137
agency	125
agencies	93
insurance_companies	84
suppliers	74
service_providers	42
corporations	35
supplier	34
accountancy_firm	21
investment_company	18
investment_firm	18
trading_company	17
trading_firm	15
consultancy_firm	15
service_provider	14
insurance_company	14
services_provider	11
brokerage_firm	9
banks	8
audit_firm	6
brokerage_firms	3
holding_company	3
buyout_firm	2
marketing_agency	2
services_providers	2
audit_firms	2
agent_firm	2
consultancy_firms	1
auditing_company	1
portfolio_firm	1
broking_firm	1

Table 5-5 Terms referring to organizations in university and financial job advertisements

It should be noted that USAS assigns a semantic tag to a word and a multiword expression. Therefore, 'business school' is treated as one word by Wmatrix. The word 'client' may seem irrelevant but in fact it is used to refer to employer organizations. This is because the majority of the companies hire a recruitment agency – 'our client' or 'my client' thus refers to the actual employer. In this case only the singular form is used when referring to the employer organization. Sample concordances are provided below:

's Permanent Full time 29-Nov-2010 510389 My	client	is a leader in the high frequency and market
s Permanent Full time 29-Nov-2010 554799 Our	client	is a major global financial services provider
Permanent Full time 26-Mar-2010 592732 My	client	, a world renowned financial services institu
ng an impressive and illustrious history our	client	is widely-regarded to be one of the pre-emin
, and demographic and expense risk . ASA 's	client	- a leading life , pensions and investment

Table 5-6 Sample concordances for the word 'client' from the financial job corpus

Apart from the words on this list, for the university job corpus I also added some generic terms related to organization: 'group', 'organization', 'organisation', 'centre' and 'employer'. These are derived from my familiarity with the genre and a manual inspection of sample job advertisements in these corpora. The resulting words which were employed as search terms for collocational analysis are shown in the box below:[1]

Universit*|facult*|school*|department*|institut*|group*|organi*ation*|centre*|employer*|provider*

For the financial job corpus, in addition to the terms in Table 5-5, I also added the generic terms 'organization', 'organisation', 'institute', 'group' and 'employer'. The resulting search terms for collocational analysis are shown in the box below:

[1] * indicates a 'wild card' character – that is any optional string of characters. For example, institut* would find 'institute', 'institutes', 'institution' and 'institutions', as well as 'institut', which, of course, does not occur.

Agenc*|firm*|compan*|corporation*|bank*|client|institut*|group*|organi*ation*|employe r*|provider*|supplier*|department*

As the purpose of the investigation is to identify the collocates which indicate marketized discourse, I chose to focus on *adjectival* collocates which carry evaluative meaning. To facilitate this analysis, I therefore downloaded corpora which have been assigned part-of-speech tags from Wmatrix. A list of adjectival collocates was generated using the concordancing software AntConc (Anthony, 2004). This resulted in a list of *all* adjectives occurring within a span of three words to the left and right of the search terms – no statistical cut-off point was applied.

On the adjectival collocation list, only adjectives modifying organizational reference terms were selected. Some words used to classify the organization such as 'medical' as in 'medical school' were discarded. The words used as descriptors of the organization but not used to modify it, such as 'strong' as in 'The Department has a strong collegiate and student focused ethos' (U2010s 1/1772), were also excluded.

Once the list of evaluative adjectives was finalized for each corpus, I looked at these words in order to identify which words seem to belong to the same meaning group. The categorization was not based on an existing classification, but rather on my own judgment as to what semantic group they belong to within the context of business and university job advertisements. I also looked words up in a dictionary and thesaurus and looked at concordance lines to see what the words mean in the context of organizational description. It

is an iterative process of determining the emerging category and changing the grouping. Some words are also ambiguous in that they have many senses. In such cases, I attempted to categorise these words according to the most dominant sense. This (subjective) decision involved looking at dictionary and thesaurus entries as well as corpus evidence (BNC) to identify the sense that seemed to be most frequent and relevant to this context. I should however stress that the boundary between categories is, in some instances, fuzzy, and a few words could be members of multiple categories.

5.2.3 Findings: evaluative adjectives co-occurring for employer organisations

The resulting semantic groups which are discussed further below comprise 17 semantic categories as follows:

1. SIZE e.g. large, biggest, sizable	10. WEALTH e.g. well-resourced, profitable, lucrative
2. GROWTH e.g. thriving, growing, expanding	11. VISION e.g. research-led, entrepreneurial, ambitious
3. DYNAMISM e.g. dynamic, vibrant, active	12. EMOTIONAL APPEAL e.g. exciting, impressive, attractive
4. REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENTS e.g. successful, recognized, renowned	13. CARING e.g. collegiate, supportive, helpful
5. RANK e.g. world-class, top, top-tier	14. UNIQUENESS e.g. unique, distinctive, specialized
6. COMPETITIVENESS e.g. leading, competitive, world-leading	15. INCLUSIVITY e.g. inclusive, affirmative
7. GLOBAL REACH e.g. global, international	16. GOODNESS e.g. excellent, good, best
8. INNOVATIVENESS e.g. innovative, new, modern	17 OTHERS e.g. purpose-built, well-developed
9. ESTABLISHED e.g. established, integrated, traditional	

Table 5-7 Semantic categories

In most cases the category title is taken from the most frequent or prototypical adjective within that category – e.g. ESTABLISHED (most frequent). However, for a few categories, the title is merely a description of the central sense (e.g. SIZE). In terms of

sequencing, the first ten categories are related to the influence, scope and power of the organization while the rest are mainly to do with the character or personality of the organization.

Compared to the university job corpus, employers in the financial job corpus use more evaluative adjectives when referring to themselves. If we look at the proportion of evaluative adjectives per organizational reference term, for the university job corpus it is 0.07 while for the financial job corpus it is 0.20 (see Table 5-8). One initial interpretation from this finding is that evaluative language for organizational descriptions is a more typical linguistic feature of business recruitment discourse. In Chapter 7 where I report on a diachronic analysis, in the 1970s university job advertisements, the evaluative statements about employer organizations are conspicuously rare while in the 1970s financial job advertisements the evaluative statements of organizations are already frequent (for more details see Chapter 7). As such, when there are similarities between the two corpora in terms of the evaluative language used to describe employer organizations, it seems more likely to be university job advertisements which are influenced by financial job advertisements.

	University	**Financial**
Corpus size	887560	97030
frequency of terms referring to employer	22329	24107
Frequency of eval. adj co-occurring with employer terms	1553	4865
Proportion of evaluative adjectives per organizational reference terms	0.069	0.202

Table 5-8 Proportion of evaluative adjectives in each corpus

5.2.4. Semantic categories of the evaluative adjectives of organizations' reference terms

Below I elaborate on each semantic category and discuss the similarities and differences between the words used in these corpora. I also compare the frequencies of evaluative adjectives. To enable this comparison, the frequencies of evaluative adjectives

were normalized. For each adjective, this was achieved by dividing the raw frequency by the sum total of all evaluative adjectives, and then multiplying by 1,000. As such, the normalized frequency shows the frequency per thousand evaluative adjectives that are used to describe employer organizations. Statistical comparisons follow after discussion of each of the semantic categories.

Category 1: SIZE

The first category relates to the SIZE of the organization. All the words, and their raw frequency and normalized frequency from each corpus are shown in Table 5-9, below.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
largest	66	42.50	large	183	37.62
large	23	14.81	largest	64	13.16
diverse	22	14.17	big (4)	42	8.63
complex	4	2.58	small	40	8.22
biggest	2	1.29	complex	35	7.19
bigger	1	0.64	larger	16	3.29
			smaller	15	3.08
			biggest	9	1.85
			bulge-bracket	7	1.44
			greater	2	0.41
			medium-size	2	0.41
			sizable	2	0.41
			bulg-bracket [sic]	1	0.21
			lower-mid	1	0.21
			small-medium	1	0.21
			small-to-mid	1	0.21
total	**118**	75.98	**total**	**421**	86.54

Table 5-9 Adjectives in the SIZE category

The financial job corpus contains proportionately more evaluative adjectives than the university job corpus (86.54 in the financial job corpus vs 75.98 in the university job corpus)

and there are also more word types (16 in the financial job corpus vs 6 in the university job corpus). Overall, the majority of the words in both corpora indicate that the organization is 'large', bigger' or 'largest', as in 'You will join a **large** and **diverse** research group' (U2010s 1881) and thus the organization is positively evaluated. The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives indicate a claim of superiority over other organizations. It is also interesting to see that words related to smallness only occur in the financial job corpus. As such, there seems to be an underlying presumption that a good academic institution has to be big. One thing to note about the lemma 'LARGE' is that while the financial job advertisements contain higher instances of the base form of the word 'large' than its superlative form, the university job advertisements contain more instances of the superlative form than the base form. In fact, the concordance lines show that this word occurs in a phrase 'one of the largest', which hedges the claim about superiority. Still the claim of superiority has been made, though with a hedge.

Category 2: GROWTH

The second category, GROWTH, indicates that the employer organization is expanding and therefore closely related to SIZE and DYNAMISM. The words from each corpus and their frequency are shown in Table 5-10, below.

word	university frequency	normalized	word	financial frequency	normalized
thriving	23	14.81	growing	85	17.47
expanding	18	11.59	expanding	17	3.49
growing	17	10.95	fast-growing	17	3.49
changing	2	1.29	diversified	10	2.06
evolving	1	0.64	changing	4	0.82
fastest-growing	1	0.64			0.00
fast-growing	1	0.64			0.00
flourishing	1	0.64			0.00
total	**64**	41.21	**total**	**133**	27.34

Table 5-10 Adjectives in the GROWTH category

The normalized frequency is higher in the university job corpus (27.34 in the financial job corpus vs 41.21 in the university job corpus). There are four words that appear in both corpora: 'changing', 'expanding', 'fast-growing' and 'growing'. An example is 'The Department of Statistical Science is a rapidly **expanding** department' (U2010s 303). It should be noted that on the list there are 'fast' and 'fastest' too, but since they occur in the phrases 'fast growing' and 'fastest growing' they are counted in the word 'growing' already and thus they are discarded from the list. Considering the words that only appear in the university job corpus I find that university job advertisements use more words related to organic development and are often associated with a living organism – e.g. 'evolve' and 'thrive'. White (2003) suggests that these words are metaphorical and that they show a conceptualization of an organization as a living organism.

Category 3: DYNAMISM

The category DYNAMISM shows that the organization is continuously and rigorously engaged in activities. This category has a relation to GROWTH and portrays development and progressivism. The words belonging to this category in each corpus and their frequency are presented in Table 5-11, below.

word	university frequency	normalized	word	financial frequency	normalized
vibrant	71	45.72	dynamic	28	5.76
dynamic	55	35.42	active	24	4.93
active	40	25.76	busy	2	0.41
busy	16	10.30	nimble	1	0.21
lively	16	10.30	prolific	1	0.21
research-intensive	15	9.66			
motivated	7	4.51			
enthusiastic	6	3.86			
dynamical	2	1.29			
energetic	2	1.29			
research-intense	2	1.29			
research-active	1	0.64			
total	**233**	150.03	**total**	**56**	11.51

Table 5-11 Adjectives in the DYNAMISM category

There are three identical words on both lists, namely, 'active', 'busy' and 'dynamic'. An example is 'this **dynamic** Business School' (U2010s 1/1897). The university job corpus contains words associated with an academic context – 'research-active', 'research-intense' and 'research-intensive' – which occur only in that corpus. In addition, it contains a group of words that convey the meaning of full of life and energy; these are 'energetic', 'enthusiastic', 'lively', 'motivated' and 'vibrant'. This meaning group is linked to the conceptualization of an organization as a living organism, as noted above. The GROWTH and DYNAMISM category are related because they involve movement and the words used indicate the conceptualization of an organization as a living organism. The fact that both categories have a proportionately higher frequency in the university job corpus suggests that academic institutions place more emphasis on the portrayal of development and progressivism.

In addition, given that universities are places of knowledge, these words foreground the intellectual context and active engagement with knowledge discovery and imbue the employer organization with a humanistic quality. Furthermore, as these words imply the

activities done by an organization and the work atmosphere, they suggest a lifestyle that potential applicants will be part of once they become a member of the organization.

Category 4: REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT

REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT consists of evaluative adjectives which portray the employer organizations as well-known, important and successful. The words and their frequency in each corpus are presented in Table 5-12, below.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
successful	116	74.69	major	235	48.20
major	30	19.32	key	186	38.15
recognised	19	12.23	successful	121	24.82
renowned	18	11.59	prestigious	43	8.82
prestigious	7	4.51	recognised	22	4.51
respected	5	3.22	renowned	20	4.10
world-renowned	4	2.58	reputable	20	4.10
accredited	3	1.93	important	19	3.90
acclaimed	2	1.29	respected	14	2.87
acknowledged	1	0.64	well-respected	9	1.85
award-winning	1	0.64	prominent	8	1.64
famous	1	0.64	well-known	5	1.03
influential	1	0.64	award-winning	4	0.82
prominent	1	0.64	highly-regarded	4	0.82
reputable	1	0.64	reputed	3	0.62
well-known	1	0.64	high-profile	2	0.41
			recognisable	2	0.41
			succesful	2	0.41
			well-reputed	2	0.41
			(highly) acclaimed	1	0.21
			famous	1	0.21
			recognizable	1	0.21
			visible	1	0.21
			well-regarded	1	0.21
			well-renowned	1	0.21
			widely-regarded	1	0.21
total	**211**	135.87	**total**	**728**	149.30

Table 5-12 Adjectives in the REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENTS category

An example from this category is 'the internationally **renowned** Department of Statistics' (U2010s 495). The evaluative adjectives in this category appear in the financial job corpus more than in the university job corpus, both in terms of normalized frequency (149.30 vs 135.87) and types (26 vs 16). In the university job corpus, it is interesting to note that in this category, out of 16, there are 12 words that are identical to those on the business job list. The words belonging to this category not only show the value of publicity and public acknowledgement but also the similarities between academic and business job corpora when it comes to conveying the fame of the organization. Also, the university job corpus contains the word 'influential', which connotes power.

Category 5: RANK

The category RANK shows the hierarchy and status of the organization. Words and frequencies are shown in Table 5-13, below.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
world-class	35	22.54	top	315	64.60
top	22	14.17	top-tier	43	8.82
foremost	10	6.44	premier	29	5.95
premier	5	3.22	blue (chip)	15	3.08
world-ranked	5	3.22	foremost	11	2.26
first-class	4	2.58	world-class	9	1.85
top-rated	4	2.58	(highly) rated	8	1.64
highest-rated	3	1.93	eminent	6	1.23
highly-rated	2	1.29	blue-chip	5	1.03
elite	1	0.64	top-ranked	2	0.41
one-ranked	1	0.64	toptier [sic]	2	0.41
ranked	1	0.64	top-tiered	1	0.21
total	**93**	59.88	**total**	**446**	91.47

Table 5-13 Adjectives in the RANK category

All the words indicate that the organizations are superlative in nature – e.g. 'highest rated', 'foremost' and 'top'. An excerpt from the data is 'the **top** 10 UK universities for Economics/ Business' (U2010s 1173). There is an underlying value that being at the top is a quality of a good organization. This value implies competition with other organizations, because as the organization is at the top, there must be other organizations that are below it. The words 'top-tier' and 'first-class', for example, also indicate a hierarchical structure for each institutional domain, as in 'one of the **top-rated** departments in the country (joint 8th on GPA in RAE2008)' (U2010s 355). To be at the top, employer organizations have to compete to be better than others. The words 'blue-chip' and 'blue (chip)' in the financial job corpus indicate the use of wealth as an indicator of status in the hierarchy. There are four words that are identical on both lists 'world-class', 'top', 'foremost' and 'highly(-)rated'.

Category 6: COMPETITIVENESS

COMPETITIVENESS includes words that show competition within the industry and claim the superiority of an employer organization over others. These words are shown in Table 5-14, below.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
leading	203	130.71	leading	1011	207.81
world-leading	16	10.30	competitive	84	17.27
internationally -leading	2	1.29	market-leading	13	2.67
pre-eminent	1	0.64	preeminent	10	2.06
			world-leading	8	1.64
			industry-leading	3	0.62
			pre-eminent	2	0.42
total	**222**	142.95	**total**	**1131**	232.48

Table 5-14 Adjectives in the COMPETITIVENESS category

In both corpora, there are three identical evaluative adjectives. These are ‘leading’, ‘world-leading’ and ‘pre-eminent’. Three adjectives are exclusive to the financial job corpus: ‘competitive’, ‘market-leading’ and industry leading’. The last two clearly show a commercial orientation and do not occur in the university job corpus.

Category 7: GLOBAL REACH

The category GLOBAL REACH contains collocates that portray the quality or recognition of the organization on a global scale. This shows intense competition at an international level. See Table 5-15 for the evaluative adjectives for this category.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
international	229	147.46	global	760	156.22
global	32	20.61	international	262	53.85
total	**261**	168.06	**total**	**1022**	210.07

Table 5-15 Adjectives in the GLOBAL REACH category

Two words are identical in both corpora: ‘global’ and ‘international’. An example is ‘Do you want to join a truly **global** business school?’ (U2010s 1404). However, while ‘international’ is more frequent in the university job corpus, ‘global’ is more frequent in the financial job corpus. The frequency of this category is higher in the financial job corpus.

Category 8: INNOVATIVENESS

The category INNOVATIVENESS includes indicating that organization is new, has just been established or has new facilities. Table 5-16 shows the words and frequencies from each corpus.

	university			financial	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
innovative	51	32.84	new	215	44.19
modern	41	26.40	innovative	56	11.51
contemporary	5	3.22	young	2	0.41
novel	5	3.22			
state-of-the-art	5	3.22			
recently-founded	4	2.58			
pioneering	3	1.93			
newly-formed	2	1.29			
total	**116**	74.69	**total**	**273**	56.12

Table 5-16 Adjectives in the INNOVATIVENESS category

The normalized frequency is higher in the university job corpus (74.69 vs 56.12). There are more evaluative adjective types in the university job corpus (8 vs 3). The evaluative adjectives in the university job corpus tend to suggest modernity and high technology as shown by 'innovative', 'modern' and 'state-of-the-art'. An example is 'an **innovative** and diverse department' (U2010s 1/236). Mautner (2005: 104) has noted that 'innovative' is associated with 'entrepreneurial university' – a concept that is loaded with business ideology. Through the investigation of the discursive profile of an 'entrepreneurial university', she argues that innovation is a positive foregrounding of an 'entrepreneurial university' by those who support this concept (ibid.: 103). The word 'pioneering' focuses on the claim that employer organizations are the first to create or explore a new disciplinary field.

Category 9: ESTABLISHED

The category ESTABLISHED is the opposite of the previous category, it focuses on the fact that employer organizations have existed for a long time. It also portrays employer organizations as having strength in the sense that they are unlikely to fail or be affected by problems. Given its opposition to the INNOVATIVENESS category, one might expect that

this category would occur more in the university job corpus and INNOVATIVENESS to occur more in the financial job corpus; this is not the case, because both categories occur more in the university job corpus. The adjectives and frequencies of this category are shown in Table 5-17, below.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
established	22	14.17	integrated	52	10.69
original	5	3.22	established	39	8.02
longstanding	4	2.58	traditional	9	1.85
strongest	4	2.58	sustainable	7	1.44
well-established	4	2.58	stable	6	1.23
founding	1	0.64	well-established	3	0.62
long-standing	1	0.64	long-established	2	0.41
			strongest	2	0.41
			longstanding	1	0.21
			oldest	1	0.21
total	**36**	26.40	**total**	**122**	25.08

Table 5-17 Adjectives in the ESTABLISHED category

The word ‘founding’ in the university job corpus emphasizes the claim that an institution was among the first during the establishment of the university, as in ‘one of the **founding** Departments of the University when it was established in 1884’ (U2010s 4/84). This claim has an implication that organizations have more expertise than others and perhaps are more well-known because they are the first and have done research longer than others. The words ‘long-established’ and ‘oldest’ in the financial job corpus seem to accentuate the length of time, recognition and stability of the organization. The word ‘traditional’ connotes establishment and conventionalism.

Category 10: WEALTH

WEALTH is used to describe organizations, as shown in the word 'large-cap' in the financial job corpus and 'multi-million' in the university job corpus. See Table 5-18, below, for evaluative adjectives and their frequency.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
well-resourced	2	1.29	profitable	7	1.44
industrially-funded	1	0.64	large-cap	1	0.21
multi-million	1	0.64	lucrative	1	0.21
total	**4**	2.58	**total**	**9**	1.85

Table 5-18 Adjectives in the WEALTH category

The evaluative adjectives in the WEALTH category appear infrequently in each corpus, so they are marginal. An example is 'The Department is **well-resourced**' (U2010s 1271). However, the use of wealth as an indicator of size and quality in university job advertisements is striking because such value is business-oriented. Despite it being marginal, the fact that it occurs at all indicates an emerging value of universities as wealthy organizations, an expression of a university's quality through its measurable financial possessions. Nevertheless, a distinction between the two corpora is that while the evaluative adjectives in the financial job corpus seem to invoke the activity of wealth accumulation, the evaluative adjectives in the university job corpus are more passive. In a sense, although they use certain words and phrases strongly associated with business, they do so in a different way. Therefore, university discourse seems to show some resistance to the adoption of business discourse.

Category 11: VISION

The category VISION refers to the organizational orientation in terms of the sense of purpose, aspiration and organizational culture. The evaluative adjectives and their frequency in each corpus are shown in Table 5-19, below.

word	university frequency	normalized	word	financial frequency	normalized
research-led	21	13.52	entrepreneurial	26	5.24
ambitious	19	12.23	ambitious	8	1.64
intellectual	7	4.51	progressive	4	0.82
forward (thinking)	6	3.86	service-oriented	3	0.62
enterprising	4	2.58	research-driven	2	0.41
focussed	2	1.29	value-driven	1	0.21
progressive	2	1.29			
research-oriented	2	1.29			
democratic	1	0.64			
forward-looking	1	0.64			
forward-thinking	1	0.64			
highly-ambitious	1	0.64			
industry-focussed	1	0.64			
research-driven	1	0.64			
research-focussed	1	0.64			
research-informed	1	0.64			
total	**71**	45.72	**total**	**44**	9.04

Table 5-19 Adjectives in the VISION category

In this category, there are more evaluative adjective types of this category in the university job corpus and the normalized frequency is higher (type 16 vs 6, token 45.72 vs 9.04). The vision of an academic institution is of three kinds: academic, progressive and

commercial. The academic-oriented vision can be seen in the words ‘research-driven’, ‘research-focussed’, ‘intellectual’, ‘research-informed’, ‘research-led’ and ‘research-oriented’. The progressivism consists of ‘ambitious’, ‘highly ambitious’, ‘forward-thinking’, ‘forward (thinking)’, ‘forward-looking’, ‘progressive’ and ‘enterprising’. An example is ‘a successful and growing **research-led** department’ (U2010s 1396). It should be noted that ‘enterprising’ has both commercial and non-commercial meanings, as noted by Mautner (2005). Business can be seen in the words ‘(business)-focussed’ and ‘industry-focused’. The word ‘democratic’ in the university corpus occurs only once and this indicates social-oriented value in terms of governance, as shown in ‘a **democratic** self-governing institution’ (U2010s 206). In the financial job corpus, it comes as no surprise that the word ‘entrepreneurial’ is the most predominant collocate in this category as it has a sense of business and progressivism. ‘Ambitious’ and ‘progressive’ fall into the category of progressivism; ‘service-oriented’ and ‘value-driven’ are a work-related vision while ‘research-driven’ belongs to academic vision which is related to research for product development, as in ‘My client is a **research-driven** investment company’ (F2010 1492). Overall then, this category shows the academic and social-oriented values of universities as well as progressive and commercial. Academic organizations seem to focus on communicating a sense of purpose and portraying an image of being intellectual and progressive.

Category 12: EMOTIONAL APPEAL

EMOTIONAL APPEAL comprises words that relate to emotion or have an evoking affect. This category therefore is related to Martin and White's (2005) category – *affect* and also *appreciation*. The evaluative adjectives and their frequencies are shown in Table 5-20, below.

	university			financial	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
exciting	27	17.39	exciting	16	3.29
attractive	4	2.58	challenging	11	2.26
proud	4	2.58	impressive	8	1.64
pleasant	2	1.29	passionate	2	0.41
impressive	1	0.64	proud	2	0.41
total	**38**	24.47	**total**	**39**	8.02

Table 5-20 Adjectives in the EMOTIONAL APPEAL category

There are five evaluative adjective types in the academic and business job corpora but the frequency is higher in the university job corpus (24.47 vs 8.02). There are three evaluative adjectives that are identical in both lists: 'exciting', 'proud' and 'impressive'. An example is 'an **exciting** and innovative department' (U2010s 1700). There are two evaluative adjectives that are exclusive to university job advertisements: 'attractive' and 'pleasant'. Two words exclusive to the financial job corpus list are 'challenging' and 'passionate'.

Category 13: CARING

The CARING category consists of evaluative adjectives which construct the employer organization as helpful and caring. Table 5-21,below, illustrates the evaluative adjectives of this category and their frequency in each corpus.

	university			financial	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
collegiate	15	9.66	helpful	5	1.03
supportive	6	3.86			
friendly	5	3.22			
caring	1	0.64			
total	**27**	17.39	**total**	**5**	1.03

Table 5-21 Adjectives in the CARING category

There are more evaluative adjective types and tokens of this category in the university job corpus than in the financial job corpus. All the words in the university job corpus suggest

that the employer organizations care for staff and students. This is evidenced in ‘work in a dynamic, **supportive** and **friendly** School’ (U2010s 1/1905). On the other hand, in the financial job corpus, I generated concordances and found the word ‘helpful’ is used to say that the organization is helpful to customers. This is shown in ‘the UK's most **helpful** and sustainable bank’ (F2010 0774). In the university job corpus, the word ‘collegiate’ seems to be related to the concept of a collegiate organization where members are loosely controlled and enjoy freedom, and McNay (1995) argues that it is a conventional organizational culture in universities.

Category 14: UNIQUENESS

UNIQUENESS identifies an organization as different from others. Table 5-22, below, shows these evaluative adjectives and their frequency.

	university			**financial**	
word	**frequency**	**normalized**	**word**	**frequency**	**normalized**
unique	16	10.30	unique	15	3.08
distinctive	13	8.37	specialised	8	1.64
			specialized	5	1.03
total	**34**	18.67	**total**	**28**	5.76

Table 5-22 Adjectives in the UNIQUENESS category

Both corpora contain three evaluative adjective types. ‘Unique’ is found in both corpora. An evaluative adjective that only appears in the university job corpus is ‘distinctive’. In the financial job corpus, the items ‘specialised’ and ‘specialized’ are in fact the same words with different spellings. They show the specialties and expertise of the organization, as in ‘My Client is a leading **specialized** investment bank are [sic] looking to bring on a new head of the corporate finance team’ (F2010 0121).

Category 15: INCLUSIVITY

The INCLUSIVITY group presents the employing organizations as non-discriminatory. Equal opportunity laws in the UK require that employers do not discriminate against applicants on the basis of characteristics such as gender, race or age. See Table 5-23, below, for the evaluative adjectives in this category.

word	university frequency	normalized
inclusive	5	3.22
affirmative	2	1.29
Total	**7**	4.51

Table 5-23 Adjectives in the INCLUSIVITY category

In the university job corpus, this group includes 'affirmative' and 'inclusive', as in 'As an **inclusive** organisation committed to equality and diversity […]' (U2010s 1/1944). The INCLUSIVITY category suggests socially-oriented value based on the notion of social equality. While compliance with equal opportunity laws applies to all kinds of employer organizations, only the academic institutions used adjectives modifying organizational reference terms to describe themselves as inclusive, and even then, it was not widespread across universities. It should be noted that business organizations do state their compliance but do not use adjectives to describe themselves. An example is 'Pure Recruitment Group Ltd aims to promote **diversity** and **equal opportunity** through its work' (F2010 2860).

Category 16: GOODNESS

The category GOODNESS comprises words that suggest a generally positive evaluation and are semantically vague. Table 5-24, below, shows the evaluative adjectives and their frequency in each corpus.

word	university frequency	normalized	word	financial frequency	normalized
best	13	8.37	excellent	160	32.89
			good	106	21.79
			best	71	14.59
			ideal	32	6.58
			outstanding	27	5.55
			finest	10	2.06
total	**13**	8.37	**total**	**406**	83.45

Table 5-24 Adjectives in the GOODNESS category

The frequency and evaluative types are clearly higher in the financial job corpus. The word 'best' appears on both lists, as in 'the **best** commercial bank in the UK' (F2010 1782), and 'The School of Computing is among the 10 best Computing departments in the UK according to the 2008 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE)' (U2010s 316). There are two words in their superlative form: 'best' and 'finest'. Another example is 'This is an **excellent** firm with high calibre consultants and an excellent client base' (F2010 0057). What these examples tell us is that the GOODNESS category is semantically vague and requires more textual environment to determine the exact meaning. However, there is a tendency for business organizations to use these positive but vague terms to describe themselves, making their claims straightforward but subjective. In contrast, universities seem to prefer evidence-based claims, using ranking or other evidence as criteria.

Category 17: OTHERS

Collocates that belong to the OTHERS category from each corpus are shown in Table 5-25, below. The word 'well-developed' appears in both corpora. In the university job corpus, other words are 'purpose-built', which are about usefulness.

word	university frequency	normalized	word	financial frequency	normalized
purpose-built	3	1.93	well-developed	2	0.41
well-developed	2	1.29			
Total	**5**	3.22	**Total**	**2**	0.41

Table 5-25 OTHERS adjectives

An investigation of the words within each category reveals more similarities between university and financial job advertisements. There are many words in each category that are business-oriented and some words portray employer organizations as superior to others. Hence, in both corpora, there is a strong sense of competition when it comes to constructing organizational identity. The semantic grouping of evaluative adjectives reveals similarities and differences between university and financial job advertisements. In terms of the type of evaluation, they are similar but with differing degrees of emphasis. In terms of the words within each category, in some cases the words are different and have different connotations. However, in some categories such as REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT there are many identical words (12 out of 16) in each corpus. I also argue that some evaluative adjectives co-occurring with organizational reference terms in the university job corpus are business-oriented, indicating a commercialized discourse.

5.2.5 Statistical comparison of evaluative adjectives of organizations' reference terms

Research question 3 asks, "What are the similarities or differences in the emphasis of evaluative resources used to describe employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements?" In order to answer this research question, I compared the frequencies of categories of evaluative adjectives (as described above) of the two corpora. The results of these analyses are reported in this section.

The frequencies for these semantic categories in each corpus are shown in Table 5-26, below. The number in brackets is the normalized frequency. A Fisher's exact test was used to assess whether the observed frequency of each category in the two corpora was statistically different from the frequency which would be expected if the categories were evenly distributed. The next step was to calculate the effect size, which 'quantifies the strength of the observed correlation independently of the sample size' (Gries, n.d.). The measure used to determine effect size in this study is the odd ratio, which "expresses how much the distribution of a binary variable changes in response to another binary variable". The results of the statistical comparison are provided in Table 5-26.

		University	**Financial**	**effect size**
more in university	CARING	27 (17.82)	5 (1.03)	17.26***
	DYNAMISM	233 (153.80)	56 (11.55)	15.23***
	OTHERS	5 (3.30)	2 (0.41)	7.89*
	VISION	71 (46.86)	44 (9.08)	5.27***
	UNIQUENESS	29 (19.14)	28 (5.74)	3.30***
	EMOTIONAL APPEAL	38 (24.25)	39 (8.04)	3.12***
	GROWTH	64 (42.24)	133 (27.43)	1.54**
	INNOVATIVENESS	116 (76.57)	273 (56.31)	1.36**
	WEALTH	4 (2.64)	9 (1.86)	1.40
	ESTABLISHED	41 (27.06)	122 (25.17)	1.06
more in financial	GOODNESS	13 (8.58)	406 (83.75)	10.74***
	COMPETITIVENESS	222 (146.53)	1131 (233.29)	1.81***
	RANK	93 (61.39)	446 (91.47)	1.58**
	GLOBAL REACH	261 (172.28)	1022 (210.81)	1.31**
	REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT	211 (139.27)	728 (149.30)	0.89
	SIZE	118 (77.89)	421(86.84)	0.87

Table 5-26 Statistical comparison for the semantic categories[2]

** p < .01 *** p < .001

[2] The shaded column indicates that the differences are not statistically significant

This table shows the 11 semantic categories that occur more frequently with organizational reference terms in the university job corpus in the first half (separated by the line), and the 6 semantic categories that occur more frequently in the financial job corpus. The 11 evaluative resources with higher frequency in the university job corpus, 9 of which are statistically significant, are: 1) GROWTH, 2) DYNAMISM, 3) INNOVATIVENESS, 4) ESTABLISHED, 5,) VISION, 6) INCLUSIVITY, 7) CARING, 8) UNIQUENESS, 9) EMOTIONAL APPEAL, 10) WEALTH and 11) OTHERS. The semantic groups where the frequency is higher in the financial job corpus, 4 of which are statistically significantly different, are: 1) SIZE, 2) REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT, 3) RANK, 4) COMPETITIVENESS, 5) GOODNESS and 6) GLOBAL REACH. The categories that are not statistically significant are in grey and these comprise: 1) WEALTH, 2) ESTABLISHED, 3) SIZE and 4) REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT. The raw frequency of each semantic category in each corpus is shown with a normalized frequency in brackets. The orders of the semantic categories are in accordance with the effect size scores, and therefore it can be seen that the categories from CARING to INNOVATIVENESS are evaluative resources that are strongly associated with university job advertisements. The categories from GOODNESS to GLOBAL REACH are evaluative resources that are strongly associated with financial job advertisements. From the effect size scores, it can be seen that the evaluative resources that are strongly associated with academic institutions do not always correlate with statistical significance. For instance, the INNOVATIVENESS category is statistically significant but has a lower effect size value than the WEALTH category, which is not statistically significant.

How might we interpret these differences? It seems that competition and measurement-oriented values are more strongly associated with the financial job corpus. In

contrast, the university job corpus tends to focus more on intellectual excitement, a sense of purpose and a supportive environment. Moreover, the financial job corpus is more likely to use outright promotional language (i.e. the GOODNESS category) which is straightforward but subjective and semantically unclear. The evaluative adjectives in this category do not appear frequently in the university job corpus. Relevant to this finding is Slater's statement about promotional language of this kind, in which he states:

> The lexical items associated with promotional discourse generally have very little grounding in measurable facts. Indeed, they are not meant to quantify any real kind of achievement; their sole purpose is to construct an abstract reality in the discourse that makes the referent desirable and worthy of investment, trust, affiliation and so on. (Slater, 2010: 43)

In addition, when ranking each semantic group within each corpus according to the frequency, it seems that the categories that discursively construct organizations as being in competition with each other are predominant in both corpora. In fact, once the semantic categories are ranked according to their frequency, the order seems to be relatively similar, as shown in Table 5-27, below.

Rank	University	Financial
1	*GLOBAL REACH*	COMPETITIVENESS
2	DYNAMISM	GLOBAL REACH
3	*COMPETITIVENESS*	REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT
4	*REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT*	RANK
5	*SIZE*	SIZE
6	INNOVATIVENESS	GOODNESS
7	RANK	INNOVATIVENESS
8	VISION	GROWTH
9	GROWTH	ESTABLISHED
10	ESTABLISHED	DYNAMISM
11	EMOTIONAL APPEAL	VISION
12	UNIQUENESS	EMOTIONAL APPEAL
13	CARING	UNIQUENESS
14	GOODNESS	WEALTH
15	INCLUSIVITY	CARING
16	OTHERS	OTHERS
17	WEALTH	INCLUSIVITY

Table 5-27 Evaluative resources ranked by frequency

From Table 5-27, the evaluative resources that relate to competition and measurement predominate in the top ten categories (GLOBAL REACH, DYNAMISM, COMPETITIVE, REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT, INNOVATIVENESS, SIZE, RANK and GROWTH). In addition, it seems that values that are strongly associated with the financial job corpus, according to Table 5-26, also predominate in university recruitment discourse when it comes to constructing an organizational image. That is, within the top five of the university job corpus, four categories (in italics) constitute semantic categories that are strongly associated with financial job advertisements. This indicates that academic institutions often use the evaluative resources that the financial job corpus often uses to describe organizations. I conducted a further statistical analysis to determine the correlation between the ordering of these semantic categories in each corpus, using Spearman's Rank Correlation. There is a positive correlation between the two ($r = 0.787$) and the results are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). This indicates that the relative emphasis placed on these values in both types of

organization is in fact not that different. This finding furthers supports the similarities between academic institutions and business organizations.

There are also 12 semantic categories that represent the evaluative resources describing academic institutions as well. These resources represent social-oriented value (INCLUSIVITY, CARING), intellectual excitement (DYNAMISM) and having a sense of purpose (VISION, UNIQUENESS). These semantic categories (except DYNAMISM) have low frequencies and are lower down the list. Therefore, it seems that these values are being marginalized in university discourse as a result of the marketization of universities. This is consistent with Slater & Tonkiss's (2001) view that marketization undermines the value systems of public institutions. In their words:

> Market mediation has often been perceived as inexorable or irresistible, indeed as epitomising the globalizing power of modern Western capitalism. If anything can be bought or sold, then there is constant movement from cultural or other social values to economic values. On this basis alone, market society has been widely understood as corroding other value systems. (Slater & Tonkiss, 2001: 25 cited in Mautner, 2010: 30)

5.2.6 Collocation analysis of applicants

This section focuses on how applicants are construed in university and financial job advertisements. The procedures are relatively similar to the analysis of employer organisations described in Section 5.2.2. The academic and business job corpora were annotated with part-of-speech tags using Wmatrix (Rayson 2008). Words referring to applicants – applicant*, candidate* and you – were used as search terms. Adjectival collocates

that occur within a span of three to the left and three to the right of the node terms were generated using AntConc (Anthony, 2004). However, once I generated the concordances of some of these adjectives, I discovered that they were not employed for persuasive purposes. Instead, they are required attributes or in some cases are embedded in a context where qualification requirements or job duties are explained. In most cases, these words modify the skills, not the applicants. In Table 5-28, below, sample concordances of the words 'successful' co-occurring with words referring to applicants are shown. In Table 5-29, below, concordances of the word 'excellent' when co-occurring with words referring to applicants are shown.

thodology for malaria immuno-epidemiology. The	successful	applicant will work on the analysis
rrent malaria control and elimination methods. The	successful	applicant will possess a proven aptitu
n our ongoing studies of BCG and tuberculosis. The	successful	applicant will be part of a multi-disc
ical geneticists and epidemiologists at LSHTM. The	successful	applicant will have a PhD in statistic
rses in computing, technology and engineering. The	successful	applicant will also be expected to

Table 5-28 Sample concordances for 'successful' from the university job corpus

health care performance measures. You should have	excellent	quantitative skills and extensive
ion of these performance measures. You should have	excellent	statistical skills and experience of ha
e process of completing a PhD or MD. You will have	excellent	interpersonal skills and be
ddresses these or similar issues. He/she must have	excellent	academic qualifications, strong ini
to applicants and their supporters. You will have	excellent	communication skills and the ability

Table 5-29 Sample concordances for 'excellent' from the university job corpus

From Table 5-28, the word 'successful' is used in a sentence where a requirement is stated. It may be a way of hedging a requirement or reframing it by showing a successful scenario instead of stating the requirement outright. From Table 5-29, the word 'excellent' is used to describe skills, not applicants.

Of all the adjectives modifying applicants' reference terms, only 'interested' seems to be related to the persuasiveness of job advertisements, as shown in the sample concordance lines below.

IT and cataloguing skills are required. If you are	interested	in the post and would like to discuss
r 2011, although earlier starts are also possible.	interested	applicants should email Pat Unwin:
web and search on Reference Number 1165987.	interested	candidates are invited to contact Prof
rees, and a covering letter explaining why you are	interested	in this studentship and how your previ
100 potential PhD supervisors. Candidates who are	interested	in computational biology, epidemi

Table 5-30 Sample concordances of 'interested' from the university job corpus

The concordance lines show two typical uses of the adjective 'interested' when modifying applicants' reference terms. Line 1-3 show instances where it is used persuasively to construe applicants as being interested in the job and then to urge them to apply. However, it can be deployed to state requirements in relation to the applicants' academic interests, as shown in lines 4 and 5.

Overall then, the investigation of adjectival collocates of words referring to applicants does not directly show the traces of marketized discourse – i.e. linguistic features indicating a move to sell the job to applicants. Consequently, a systematic classification of these adjectives conducted in the previous section was deemed unnecessary. What this analysis indicates is that not all linguistic patterns are associated with marketization. As Baker (2012) notes, unlike the cherry-picked examples of some work in CDA, a corpus analysis of a large collection of texts means that research may encounter various linguistic patterns, some of which may not concur with the hypothesis.

It seems surprising though that words related to customers do not co-occur with applicants' reference terms, given that other studies (cf. Coffield and Williamson, 1997; Mayr, 2008) noted the adoption of business jargon and terminology into the discursive

practices of universities. In fact, these words do appear and ‘customer service skills’ are required of applicants, as I argue in Section 7.4. However, the words appear far from words referring to applicants. As a consequence, a span of three to the left and three to the right of the node terms cannot capture these customer-related words. This is a limitation of a lexical-based approach to corpus linguistic methodology and so a close reading of the whole text was conducted in order to supplement it. I discuss the representation of applicants in more details in Section 7.4 where I sampled some texts from the corpus and read the job advertisements individually.

5.3 LEXICAL BUNDLES

This section reports on the analysis of lexical bundles identified in the university and financial job advertisement corpora. The advantage of investigating lexical bundles is that, unlike keyword analysis, it does not focus on the differences between each corpus. The purpose of lexical bundle analysis is to show composites of the data and to investigate the conventionalized phraseology used in the recruitment discourse of universities and business organizations. Lexicalized phraseology in job advertisements may in turn shed light on naturalized ideology. In this chapter, I argue that lexicalized phraseology reflects ideology, and thus commercial ideology can be identified in lexical bundles. The observations are discussed in two sections. Section 5.3.1 provides an overview of the frequency information of lexical bundles. Section 5.3.2 explains the thematic and functional categories of lexical bundles. Section 5.3.3 presents an analysis of the thematic/ functional categories of lexical bundles.

This study investigates 4-word bundles in the corpora following Biber & Barbieri (2007) and Hyland (2008). Lexical bundles were generated with WordSmith Tools Version 5.0 (Scott, 2008). The analysis only focuses on lexical bundles that occur at least 80 times per

million words, and to prevent the effect of idiosyncrasies from one text or one organization, lexical bundles must appear in more than 20 texts and from more than one organization. Consequently, lexical bundles that contain institutional names, indicating that they are from one institution, are excluded. Furthermore, as discussed in Section 4.2, the date, website and e-mail address are converted to ddmmyy, web and WEBMAIL, respectively, because the differences between dates, website and e-mail addresses are irrelevant to the analysis. Each of them therefore should be treated as one category. The names of organizations seem to be a similar case as well. However, given the complicated structure of names, they are not changed. The resulting lexical bundles were compared to reveal the similarities and differences between the corpora. After that, they were grouped according to their thematic/ functional categories.

5.3.1 An overview of lexical bundles in academic and business job corpora

Table 5-31, below, shows frequency information, namely, 1) type and token of key lexical bundles in each corpus, and 2) type, token and type/ token ratio of total 4-grams.

Corpus\ frequencies	**Lexical bundles**		**Total 4-grams**		
	Types	Tokens	Types	Tokens	Type/token ratio
University	281	33075	421590	709653	0.59
Financial	69	8675	560499	785546	0.71

Table 5-31 Frequency information of lexical bundles

The university corpus contains far more lexical bundles than the financial corpus, measured by both type and token. The type/ token ratio of total 4-grams is lower in the university job corpus. These figures might suggest that university job advertisements are more formulaic than financial job advertisements and that some phrases in the university job corpus

are repeated often enough to appear in the lexical bundle list. The 4-grams that are higher than the cut-off point constitute a marginal part of the whole 4-grams list. The majority occur only once or twice.

One tentative interpretation of the greater diversity of lexical bundles in the university corpus concerns a possible 'hybridization of discourses' – a point which will be explored below. This interpretation of the figures is related to research by Biber, Conrad & Cortes (2004), which found that classroom teaching contains many more lexical bundles than conversation and textbooks. To account for the higher frequency of lexical bundles, they argue that classroom teaching integrates both lexical bundles identified in conversation and those found in textbooks, resulting in the presence of lexical bundles drawn from both discourses in classroom teaching. In a similar vein, it is hypothesized that the higher frequency of lexical bundles in the university job corpus, as shown in Table 5-31, indicates that in the academic recruitment advertisements there is a hybridization of discourses – traditional university job advertisements and business discourse – in university job advertisements, a claim made by Fairclough (1993). In light of this claim, it can be hypothesized that in university job advertisements there might be phrases associated with conventional ways of writing job advertisements and linguistic strategies derived from business discourse. As such, the presence of both discourses may result in a higher frequency of lexical bundles in university job advertisements. Needless to say, this hypothesis is only tentative.

Numbers alone provide little insight into the possible marketization of university discourse – lexical bundles in both corpora need to be explored from the perspective of meaning. The sections that follow therefore further investigate lexical bundles in terms of

thematic and functional classification and linguistic features of lexical bundles within each category.

5.3.2 Thematic and functional analysis of lexical bundles

To determine the function that lexical bundles perform in recruitment discourse, they are categorized into thematic/ functional categories. The categories are partly data-driven but also based on my familiarity with recruitment discourse. The categories aim to capture the local textual function (Mahlberg, 2007) that these lexical bundles perform and do not aim to arrive at categories that can be generalized to other text types. Lexical bundles are analyzed in relation to their context (concordances), and also the content within them. The analysis of lexical bundles suggests that there are seven categories: 1) *Organization*, 2) *Applicant identification*, 3) *Job specification*, 4) *Attributive/ deictic bundles*, 5) *Soliciting a response*, 6) *Equal opportunity* and 7) *Others*. Below, I elaborate on each category and provide examples from the corpora.

Organization is a category that relates to the presentation or action of the organization. Examples from the corpora are provided below, with lexical bundles in bold. There are two subcategories within *organization*. These are *organizational identification* and *organizational desire*. In the first category, the lexical bundles tell what the organization is. In the second, the lexical bundles show the desire of the organization for new employees. Examples 1 and 2 belong to *organizational identification*, while 3 and 4 are *organizational desire*.

*Ex.1 The University of Southampton **is one of the** UK's leading research universities and among the top 100 universities in the world. (U2010s 4/186)*

*Ex.2 Our client is **a leading Investment Bank** who are* [sic] *looking to hire a COO to help support and run the M&A / Corporate Finance areas. (F2010 0607)*

*Ex.3 **We are looking for** a highly motivated individual to join our team. (U2010s 2/1)*

Ex.4 Global Financial Firm ***is looking for a*** *Team Leader in London for their Model Validation and Review Groups.* *(F2010 2974)*

The second category, *applicant identification*, consists of lexical bundles that contain words that refer to the applicant such as 'candidate' and 'you'. Samples are shown below in examples 5 and 6

Ex.5 ***The successful candidate will*** *be able to take advantage of opportunities for training [...]* *(U2010s 4/333)*

Ex.6 ***The ideal candidate will*** *possess a strong debt markets product suite, excellent analytical and technical skills* *(F2010 2908)*

Third, *job specification*, is concerned with the position being advertised. The lexical bundles associated with job specification can be divided into seven subcategories. These are: 1) *attractiveness*, 2) *obligational stance*, 3) *work*, 4) *contract*, 5) *knowledge/ degree*, 6) *experience*, 7) *ability* and 8) *salary*. Examples are provided below. In *attractiveness* (examples 7 and 8), the lexical bundles construct the job as something attractive and beneficial to the applicants. This can be seen from the words 'opportunity', 'exciting' and 'excellent'. The *obligational stance* (examples 9 and 10) lexical bundles contain words that suggest a requirement or obligation, such as the use of deontic modality and the word 'responsible'. The *work* lexical bundles (examples 11 and 12) contain the word 'work' or other words with a similar meaning. The *contract* lexical bundles (example 13) provide information about the contract type of the position or the duration of the contract. The knowledge/ degree lexical bundles (examples 14 and 15) are specific requirements related to the qualifications or knowledge that applicants need to have. The *experience* lexical bundles (examples 16 and 17) are also specific requirements but they refer to experience required for the job. The *ability* lexical bundles (examples 18 and 19) are indicators of requirements and

they have a word relating to ability, such as ‘able’ and ‘ability’ in them. The final category, *salary* (example 20), comprises lexical bundles that contain information about the salary.

*Ex.7 This **is an exciting opportunity** to join an innovative team led by Professor George Hanna. (U2010s 1/1629)*

*Ex.8 This **is an excellent opportunity** to join a dynamic company where your success will be rewarded in terms of progression and remuneration. (F2010 2766)*

*Ex.9 You **will be responsible for** developing the clinical curriculum […] (U2010s 1/306)*

*Ex.10 […] you **must be able to** demonstrate a track record of working well in/ managing a team whilst adding value at every given opportunity. (F2010 2835)*

*Ex.11 Applicants must therefore want to **work as part of a** collaborative team and be keen and able to travel. (U2010s 1/628)*

*Ex.12 Candidates must demonstrate their ability **to work in a** fast-moving environment with extremely tight deadlines. (F2010 2224)*

*Ex.13 The **post is fixed-term**, and is available immediately until ddmmyy. (U2010s 3/8)*

*Ex.14 You should have **a PhD or equivalent** in Statistics or Mathematics, or a relevant field. (U2010s 495)*

*Ex.15 **A good understanding of** the financial markets and the buy side arena. (F2010 2291)*

*Ex.16 **Experience of working in** an interdisciplinary environment would be an advantage… . (U2010s 1/472)*

*Ex.17 In addition the Head of CRM will have **a proven track record** in defining, leading and managing a CRM function. (F2010 2671)*

*Ex.18 Personal qualities should also include **the ability to work** independently and high [sic] degree of motivation […]. (U2010s 4/344)*

*Ex.19 Good team working skills **and the ability to** work efficiently and accurately under pressure (F2010 2924)*

*Ex.20 **The salary range will** be £31,905 to £38,594 per annum, inclusive of London Allowance (U2010s 4/252)*

The fourth category, *attributive/ deictic* lexical bundles, is in fact adopted from Biber et al.'s (2004) work. The *attributive* lexical bundles provide the attribute of the noun that they modify in terms of “quantity”, “size and form”, “abstract characteristics” and “logical relationship” (Biber et al., 2004: 395). The *deictic* bundles are in fact shorthand for time/

place/ text-deixis bundles which refer to time, place or the textual location (ibid.). These two types of bundles are not specific to discursive functions in job advertisements so they are grouped together. The first two examples below are *attributive* lexical bundles while the latter two are *deictic* lexical bundles.

*Ex.21 The post holder will assist the Institute Building and Laboratory Operations Managers with the provision of **a wide range of** support services to the WIBR and CI. (U2010s 1/1756)*

*Ex.22 You will be managing working **as part of a** close knit team so it is important that you are a good team player. (F2010 0879)*

*Ex.23 The Studentship is available for a period of four years, subject to a satisfactory progress review **at the end of** the first year […] (U2010s 1/137)*

*Ex.24 The legal team supports businesses covering investment management services to institutional and pooled fund mandates **in the UK and** overseas. (F2010 215)*

The fifth category, *soliciting a response*, is lexical bundles that offer information related to the response process. This category is further subdivided into three subcategories, namely, *qualifying directives* (25 and 26), *application procedure* (27 and 28) and *further contact* (29).

*Ex.25 An application form must be completed **if you wish to** be considered for this post. (U2010s 1819)*

*Ex.26 **If you would like** further details on this position, please contact me on the details below. (F2010 1995)*

*Ex.27 For full vacancy details **and how to apply**, visit our website web or contact the Human Resources department by email. (U2010s 4/430)*

*Ex.28 **To apply for this** opportunity, send your CV as soon as possible quoting ref. HAM133305 (F2010 2665)*

*Ex.29 Informal **enquiries can be made** to the Head of Biomedical and Life Sciences […] (U2010s 1464)*

The sixth category, *equal opportunity*, concerns the legal requirement that prohibits employers from discriminating against employees on the grounds of race, gender, disability,

etc. There are two subcategories – *equal opportunity statement* (30 and 31) and *award* (32). The latter is actually associated with the practice of being an equal opportunity employer.

*Ex.30 The College **is committed to equality** and diversity, and encourages applications from all sections of the community. (U2010s 1/82)*

*Ex.31 MSCI Inc. is **an equal opportunity employer** committed to diversifying its workforce. (F2010 2756)*

*Ex.32 We are also an Athena Silver SWAN Award winner, **a Stonewall Diversity Champion** and a Stonewall Top 100 Employer 2011 (U2010s 1/444)*

The final category, *others*, is lexical bundles that cannot be sorted into the categories above and constitute only a marginal part of the lexical bundles in the corpora. Examples are provided below.

*Ex.33 Alternatively, if you **are unable to apply** online, please contact Dr. Louise English at $WEBMAIL$ to request an application form. (U2010s 1/515)*

*Ex.34 Huxley Associates Limited acts as an Employment Agency **and an Employment Business** (F2010 3000)*

The thematic/ functional categories of lexical bundles are summarized in Table 5-32, below.

Thematic/functional categories	Sub-categories
1. Organization	1.1 Organizational identification 1.2 Organizational desire
2. Applicant identification	
3. Job specification	3.1 Attractiveness 3.2 Obligation stance 3.3 Work 3.4 Contract 3.5 Knowledge/degree 3.6 Experience 3.7 Ability 3.8 Salary
4. Attributive and deictic bundles	4.1 Attributive bundles 4.2 Deictic bundles
5. Soliciting a response	5.1 Qualifying directives 5.2 Application procedure 5.2 Further contact
6. Equal Opportunity	6.1 Statement 6.2 Award
7. Others	-

Table 5-32 Thematic and functional categories of lexical bundles

The differences in the sizes of the two corpora cause some difficulties in comparing the frequency of lexical bundles. When comparing linguistic features from corpora of different sizes, the frequencies need to be normalized. Usually, this is done by dividing the occurrence of linguistic features by the total word tokens and multiplying it by 100 or 1,000. In so doing, we get percentages and frequency per thousand words, respectively. However, to normalize the frequency of lexical bundles does not seem to be straightforward. This is because a lexical bundle is a group of words and dividing their frequency by word tokens is not comparing like with like. To overcome this problem, I divided the frequency of each lexical bundle by the total frequency of 4-word clusters in each corpus without any cut-off point. As there are several digits, I made it easier to compare by multiplying them by 1,000,000. In consequence, the normalized frequency here represents the frequency of each lexical bundle per one million 4-word clusters in each corpus.

5.3.3 Comparison of lexical bundles

The overall findings suggest that there is a clear distinction between the lexical bundles in business and university job advertisements. Table 5-34, below, shows the frequency and normalized frequency (the raw frequency divided by the total number of lexical bundles timed one million) of each main lexical bundle category in each corpus. The comparison is based on log-likelihood statistics. While this statistic considers the size of data in the comparison, it is problematic to use the total word tokens as the size of the data due to the comparability issue discussed above. To maintain consistency, I decided to use the frequency of total 4-word clusters in each corpus without a cut-off point as the data size.

categories	**university**		**financial**		**LL**
	frequency	normalized	frequency	normalized	
1.Organization	1730	2437.81	2185	2781.50	†16.87
2. Applicant identification	2189	3084.61	1246	1586.16	†366.91
3. Jobs	6614	9320.05	3890	4951.97	†1018.42
4. Attributive/deictic	2883	4062.55	360	458.28	†2769.63
5. Soliciting a response	14283	20126.74	468	595.76	†17740.17
6. Equal opportunity	3761	5299.77	312	397.18	†4171.99
7. Others	623	877.89	569	724.34	†25.05

Table 5-33 Statistical comparison of the main categories of lexical bundles

† = Statistically significant $p < 0.0001$ (Rayson, 2011)

From the table, all the categories are statistically significantly different across the two corpora. In the financial corpus, there are more bundles relating to organizations. In the university job advertisements, on the other hand, there are more bundles about applicants, jobs, soliciting a response and equal opportunity. It seems that financial job advertisements contain slightly more lexical bundles that focus on constructing the identity of the

organization, while university job advertisements have more lexical bundles that focus on constructing the reader's identity, the job and the application procedure.

Although comparisons of frequency indicate differences between the two types of job adverts, a detailed examination of each category indicates that there are also similarities. In what follows, I elaborate on seven of the thematic/functional categories that clearly index marketized discourse and point out similarities and differences, in order to explore Fairclough's (1993) claim that business is colonizing university discourse. The categories which I discuss are *organization, applicant identification, job specification: attractiveness, obligational stance, salary, soliciting response: qualifying directives* and *equal opportunity*.

5.3.3.1 *Organization*

In the first category, *organizational identification*, there seem to be more differences than similarities. The lexical bundles and their frequency information are shown in Tables 5-34 and 5-35, below.

Lexical Bundles	**Freq.**	**normalized freq.**	**Texts**
IS ONE OF THE	164	254.85	157
FACULTY OF LIFE SCIENCES	80	124.32	40
Total	247	379.16	

Table 5-34 *Organizational identification* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	normalized freq.	Texts
OUR CLIENT IS A	210	267.33	184
IS ONE OF THE	151	192.22	136
TOP TIER INVESTMENT BANK	115	146.39	81
CLIENT IS A LEADING	113	143.85	102
A LEADING INVESTMENT BANK	108	137.48	91
ROYAL BANK OF SCOTLAND	105	133.66	68
ONE OF THE WORLD'S	90	114.57	78
MY CLIENT IS A	89	113.30	82
A TOP TIER INVESTMENT	77	98.02	55
Total	1058	1346.83	877

Table 5-35 *Organizational identification* in financial job corpus

In the financial corpus, the lexical bundles contain plenty of evaluative lexis such as 'leading' and 'top tier'. The bundles also show different positioning strategies. For instance, sometimes the business organizations position themselves as head-hunters for the company as in 'my client is a'. In many cases, it personalizes the organizational identity via the pronouns 'our' and 'my'. In addition, businesses refer to themselves in terms of a category such as 'investment bank'. In the university corpus, there is no lexical bundles with evaluative words in them and the lexical bundles show some specific references to institutions as in 'Faculty of Life Sciences'. However, this does not mean that they do not use evaluative lexis to promote themselves. There are 875 instances of the words 'leading' and 'leader(s)' in the university job corpus. Table 5-36, below, provides sample concordances.

f-the-art building in September 2011. As part of a	**leading**	Russell Group university, the School is c
School of Computing, Informatics & Media is a	**leading**	specialist in providing distinctive cours
er annum. Aston Business School is one of Europe's	**leading**	business schools, with the majority of it
ablished in 1983, CEM has grown to become a market	**leader**	in the field of assessment provision and r
e London College of Communication (LCC) is a world	**leader**	in media and design degree courses that pr

Table 5-36 Sample concordances of 'leading' and 'leader(s)' in university job corpus

Interestingly, in line 4, the department describes itself as a 'market leader', which sounds more like a business organization than an educational institution. In fact, I checked the website of CEM (www.cem.org) and found that this organization is located within Durham University. However, the URL seems to suggest that it is not an academic institution but a commercial organization. This is a reflection of a business function within a university and therefore constitutes an instance of a blurring boundary between academic and commercial organizations. In addition, these concordance lines indicate that universities use a variety of ways to refer to themselves, as in 'Russell Group university', 'specialist' and 'business schools', and thus they are not repeated often enough to appear in the 4-word lexical bundle list. What this analysis shows in terms of methodology is that while lexical bundle analysis is useful in terms of its coverage of large data, it will not show everything. It only retrieves repeated sequences of words of a specified length. It does not capture shorter word strings and strings of different words which perform a similar discursive function.

There is one type of lexical bundle that the business and the academic corpora share, that is, 'is one of the'. This lexical bundle frequently occurs with evaluative lexis such as 'leading' and 'fastest growing' (see examples from the corpus below). It may then be argued that this lexical bundle is used to make evaluative comments about the organization. It deserves further detailed investigation into its phraseology. Below I elaborate on the pattern in which this lexical bundle appears and the semantic association of this bundle.

The lexical bundle 'is one of the' is part of a larger pattern consisting of the following elements:

ENTITY + is one of the + (SCOPE) + EVALUATION + (ENTITIES) + (SCOPE)

The ENTITY frequently refers to the title of the organization or the terms used to refer to it. SCOPE is the extent of the claim to which the advertiser evaluates themself, such as 'in the UK'. Excerpts from each corpus are provided below

Ex.35 Leeds Metropolitan is one of the UK's largest and most distinctive universities […] (U2010s 1301)

Ex.36 Edge Hill University is one of the fastest growing universities in the UK […] (U2010s 1/253)

Ex.37 Our client is one of the UK's leading providers of Corporate Banking [….] (F2010 0068)

Ex.38 Our Investment Bank is one of the world's top global investment banks […] (F2010 0974)

The first two examples are from the university corpus while the latter two are from the financial financial corpus. The pattern starts with terms referring to the organization which are generally specific about which organization is being referred to, as in 'Leeds Metropolitan', 'Edge Hill University', 'our client' and 'our investment bank'. The second part is the lexical bundle. The third part, which is SCOPE, is optional and only appear in the first, third and fourth examples. The SCOPE of the first and third examples is 'the UK's', whereas the SCOPE of the fourth example is 'the world's'. The EVALUATION part refers to evaluative word(s), as in 'largest and most distinctive' in the first example, 'fastest growing' in the second example, 'leading' in the third example and 'top global' in the fourth example. It should be noted that the evaluative words are often in a superlative form. The ENTITIES element which appears almost at the end of this pattern is optional and refers to the category to which the organization belongs. From the examples above, this element includes 'universities' in the first and second examples, 'providers of Corporate Banking' in the third example and 'investment banks' in the fourth example.

I now move on to the semantic categories within the EVALUATION slot. This analysis overlaps with the analysis of evaluative adjectival collocates in Section 5.2.4. However, given a different approach, it can be used to triangulate the findings. The classification of the semantic categories in the EVALUATION slot comes from the analysis of evaluative adjectives in Section 5.2.3. The investigation into the semantic categories of EVALUATION shows both similarities and differences between university and financial job advertisements. The categorization, the evaluative lexis and their frequency and the percentages of each category in relation to the total frequency of evaluative lexis are shown in Table 5-7. The frequency of the words is provided in brackets. Where the frequency of the word is not shown, it occurs only once. It should be noted that superlative term 'most' is considered part of the evaluative lexis; thus, 'most important' is considered one evaluative word. This is because there are evaluative words in superlative form such as 'biggest'. The word 'most' and the superlative morpheme '-est' perform the same function. I therefore decide that 'most' + evaluative lexis is one unit. In this slot the university corpus contains a higher number of evaluative words (177 occurrences) than the financial corpus (143 occurrences). However, this does not necessarily mean that university job advertisements are more promotional than financial job advertisements. This is because evaluative lexis also appears in the lexical bundles, 'a leading investment bank', 'a top-tier investment bank' and 'top tier investment bank' (see Table 5-35 above), while the university job corpus does not contain *organizational identification* lexical bundles that have evaluative lexis in them. Table 5-37 shows the semantic categories of the EVALUATION slot

	University			Financial		
Evaluation categories	**words**	**total**	**%**	**word**	**total**	**%**
SIZE	biggest (8), largest (60), most diverse	69	39.66	biggest (4), largest (25), big four	30	20.83
GROWTH	fastest growing (4)	4	2.30	fastest growing (7)	7	4.86
DYNAMISM	most active (2), most vibrant, liveliest (3), Russell Group research intensive	7	4.02		0	0.00
REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT	major, most important, most successful (21)	23	13.22	key (2), premier (5), most successful (6), most respected (2), most prestigious, most visible, well-known (2), high profile, biggest names (2)	22	15.28
RANK	foremost (8), top (8), highest rated	17	9.77	top (12)	12	8.33
GLOBAL REACH		0	0.00	global	15	10.42
COMPETITVENESS	leading (45)	45	25.86	leading (41), pre-eminent (5)	46	31.94
INNOVATIVENESS	modern	1	0.57	newest	1	0.69
ESTABLISHED	oldest, longest established, strongest, original	4	2.30	oldest, most established, strongest (2)	4	2.78
WEALTH				increasingly profitable (2)	2	1.39
VISION	most ambitious, most enterprising	2	1.15		0	0.00
EMOTIONAL APPEAL	most attractive	1	0.57	most exciting and challenging	2	1.39
GOODNESS		0	0.00	best (3)	3	2.08
UNIQUENESS	most distinctive	1	0.57		0	0.00
total		174			144	

Table 5-37 Semantic categories of the EVALUATION slot of 'is one of the'

The semantic categories that appear in both corpora are: 1) SIZE, 2) GROWTH, 3) REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT, 4) RANK, 5) COMPETITIVENESS, 6) INNOVATIVENESS, 7) ESTABLISHED and 8) EMOTIONAL APPEAL. The semantic categories that only appear in the university job advertisements in this semantic sequence are: 1) DYNAMISM, 2) VISION and 3) UNIQUENESS. Those that appear only in the financial job corpus are: 1) GLOBAL REACH, 2) WEALTH and 3) GOODNESS. In terms of the types of semantic categories, the similarities outweigh the differences (8 similar groups vs 6 different groups). The differences seem to be that business organizations focus more on the scope, wealth and outright promotional statement as in the GOODNESS category whereas the university job advertisements place more emphasis on portraying enthusiasm and a sense of identity.

This part discusses words within each category of the EVALUATION slot in this semantic sequence. For the semantic category of SIZE, both corpora have the words 'biggest' and 'largest'. The words only identified in the university job corpus are 'most diverse' while the financial job corpus contains 'big four' which is absent from university job advertisements. However, the SIZE category accounts for a greater proportion of the evaluation categories in university job advertisements (69 tokens or 39.66% of the university job advertisements and 30 tokens or 20.83% of the financial job corpus). In the category GROWTH, both corpora contain the words 'fastest growing' but the proportion is higher in the financial job corpus (4.86% vs 2.3%).

The third category, DYNAMISM, only occurs in the university job corpus. The following words are classified into this category: 'most active', 'most vibrant', 'liveliest' and 'Russell Group research intensive'. Most of these words were captured during investigation of evaluative adjectives (reported in section 5.2.4), except the word 'liveliest' which is too far

from the words referring to institutions. The words ‘Russell Group’ are part of the words ‘research intensive’ which were identified earlier in the collocational analysis section. Apart from conveying dynamism, the words ‘Russell Group’ may portray the prestige and reputation associated with the Russell Group universities, which have a long history and notable research strengths.

In the REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT category, the financial job corpus has more word types (9 vs 3) and higher percentages (15.28% vs 13.22%) than the university job corpus. The evaluative item that is identical in both corpora is ‘most successful’. The evaluative items only found in the financial job corpus within this slot are ‘key’, ‘premier’, ‘most respected’, ‘most prestigious’, ‘most visible’, ‘well-known’, ‘high profile’ and ‘biggest names’. The evaluative items only found in the university job corpus within this slot are ‘major’ and ‘most important’. It is evident that the evaluative items in financial job advertisements are more related to a general public image and reputation as opposed to being more specific in university job advertisements.

For the category RANK, the word ‘top’ is identified in both corpora. In the university job corpus, the words ‘foremost’ and ‘highest rated’ are also found. In this category, the percentage is higher in the university job corpus (9.77% vs 8.33%). The GLOBAL REACH category is found only in the financial job corpus in the word ‘global’. In the COMPETITIVENESS category, ‘leading’ is identified in both corpora. In the financial job corpus, the word ‘pre-eminent’ is also identified. The percentage of this category in the financial job corpus is higher than in the university job corpus (31.94% vs 25.86%).

In INNOVATIVENESS, the word ‘modern’ is found in the university job corpus while the word ‘newest’ is found in the financial job corpus. The percentage is slightly higher

in the financial job corpus (0.69% vs 0.57%). In the ESTABLISHED category, the words ‘oldest’ and ‘strongest’ occur in both corpora. The words ‘longest established’ and ‘original’ are exclusive to the university job corpus, whereas ‘most established’ is exclusive to the financial job corpus. The category WEALTH only appears in the financial job corpus and the word is ‘increasingly profitable’. The category VISION is only identified in the university job corpus. The words in this category consist of ‘most ambitious’ and ‘most enterprising’. In the EMOTIONAL APPEAL category, the university job corpus contains the words ‘most attractive’ while the financial job corpus contains ‘most exciting and challenging’ (this is considered two words). The word ‘most attractive’ is in fact not employed to evaluate a university but the city in which the university is situated. An example is provided below:

Ex.39 Stirling is one of the ***most attractive*** *places to live in the UK […] (U2010s 1228)*

This sentence suggests a trace of interdiscursivity in which tourism discourse is present in an university job advertisement. This sentence promotes the city and university by drawing on an association between them.

The GOODNESS category only appears in the financial job corpus and the word is ‘best’. The UNIQUENESS category only occurs in the university job corpus and the words are ‘most distinctive'.

In summary, the analysis of the pattern for the lexical bundle ‘is one of the’ illustrates a number similarities between the university and financial job advertisements and the evaluative words used in both corpora. The same semantic categories for evaluation appear in both corpora and in not dissimilar proportions. Some evaluative words seem to be exclusive to either corpus, but this exclusivity might be exaggerated because only ‘is one of the’ is examined at this point. Most of the evaluative words were previously identified in the

collocation analysis section. The section that follows will move on to the second subcategory: *organizational desire*.

For *organizational desire*, generally they all refer to the desire of the organization to recruit a new member. Tables 5-38 and 5-39, below, show the lexical bundles of this type from each corpus.

Lexical bundles	**Freq.**	**Normalized freq.**	**texts**
APPLICATIONS ARE INVITED FOR	351	545.43	349
ARE INVITED FOR A	211	327.88	209
WE ARE LOOKING FOR	206	320.11	201
SEEKING TO APPOINT A	128	198.9	127
ARE INVITED FOR THE	121	188.03	121
WE ARE SEEKING TO	109	169.38	108
IS SEEKING TO APPOINT	107	166.27	107
ARE SEEKING TO APPOINT	87	135.19	86
APPLICATIONS ARE INVITED FROM	84	130.53	83
ARE LOOKING FOR A	79	122.76	78
Total	1483	2304.49	1469

Table 5-38 *Organizational desire* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	**Freq.**	**Normalized freq.**	**Texts**
WE ARE LOOKING FOR	204	259.69	176
IS LOOKING FOR A	193	245.69	162
ARE LOOKING FOR A	169	215.14	143
IS LOOKING TO HIRE	109	138.76	94
LOOKING TO HIRE A	104	132.39	94
INVESTMENT BANK IS LOOKING	103	131.12	86
IS LOOKING FOR AN	83	105.66	71
CLIENT IS LOOKING FOR	77	98.02	75
Total	1127	1434.67	977

Table 5-39 *Organizational desire* in financial job corpus

From the lexical bundles in the financial corpus, it seems that business organizations tend to phrase recruitment as an active search, as in ‘BE + looking for’ and ‘BE + looking to

hire'. Furthermore, there are similar positioning strategies to those identified in *organizational identity*. In the university job advertisements there are also bundles that are informal and phrase recruitment as an active search and look similar to business – e.g. 'we are looking for'. However, there are also instances of the lexical bundle 'applications are invited for' which involves the use of nominalization and passivization. These features make this bundle less direct and more formal. In the diachronic analysis in Section 7.4, the phrase 'applications are invited for/ from' is found to be more typical of the 1970s university job advertisements than the 1970s financial job advertisements. This phrase might be considered part of the conventional way that university job advertisements traditionally phrased organizational desire for new members. Another point to note is that while three lexical bundles in the university job corpus contain 'seeking to appoint', two lexical bundles in the financial job corpus contain the words 'looking to hire'. As it distinguishes between 'appoint' and 'hire' this may provide interesting insights, thus I searched the nouns which occur between one to three words to the right of these two words in the BNC to see which positions are associated with them. The results are shown in Table 5-40, below.

	Appoint	**Hire**
1	minister	car
2	director	boat
3	president	equipment
4	chairman	labour
5	receiver	hitman
6	deputy	staff
7	secretary	bikes
8	governor	video
9	manager	minibus
10	cabinet	van
11	officer	firm
12	committee	hall
13	cbe	helicopter
14	representative	nanny
15	guardian	consultants
16	executive	workers
17	auditors	bike
18	head	taxi
19	professor	lawyers
20	members	cars

Table 5-40 Collocates of 'appoint' and 'hire' in the BNC[3]

From Table 5-40, it is apparent that ‘appoint’ is associated with prestigious positions, often in public institutions such as ‘minister’ or ‘president’. The word ‘hire’, on the other hand, is associated with objects and general occupations often in commercial organizations, such as ‘labour’ and ‘consultant’. From the use of the word ‘appoint’, it seems therefore that the university job advertisements tend to ascribe a degree of prestige to a position.

5.3.3.2 *Applicant identification*

The information about lexical bundles relating to *applicant identification* is summarized in Tables 5-41 and 5-42, below.

[3] Data cited herein have been extracted from the British National Corpus Online service, managed by Oxford University Computing Services on behalf of the BNC Consortium. All rights in the texts cited are reserved

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
THE SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL	513	797.17	435
THE POST HOLDER WILL	304	472.4	235
THE SUCCESSFUL APPLICANT WILL	286	444.43	249
YOU WILL HAVE A	219	340.31	209
SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL BE	180	279.71	169
POST HOLDER WILL BE	121	188.03	104
SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL HAVE	115	178.7	113
SUCCESSFUL APPLICANT WILL BE	100	155.29	95
YOU WILL ALSO BE	80	124.32	78
YOU WILL ALSO HAVE	75	116.55	71
CANDIDATE WILL HAVE A	71	110.33	70
Total	2189	3401.57	1951

Table 5-41 *Applicant identification* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
THE SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL	488	621.22	401
THE IDEAL CANDIDATE WILL	170	216.41	163
SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL BE	163	207.50	146
SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATE WILL HAVE	136	173.13	124
IDEAL CANDIDATE WILL HAVE	106	134.94	103
YOU WILL HAVE A	98	124.75	88
THE CANDIDATE WILL BE	85	108.20	71
Total	1246	1586.16	1096

Table 5-42 *Applicant identification* in financial job corpus

The financial and university corpora share a large number of similar bundles, such as ‘successful candidates will have’ and ‘you will be/ have’. Still, there are some bundles exclusive to each type of organization. In the financial corpus, there are bundles that contain ‘ideal candidate’ which the university corpus does not have. In the university job corpus, there are bundles that contain ‘post holder’ and ‘applicant’ which are absent from the key bundles in the financial corpus. On the whole, these bundles seem to be a way of phrasing requirements or duties by constructing an ideal/ successful situation and inviting readers to identify themselves with that discursive construction.

5.3.3.3 *Job specification*

Regarding the lexical bundles related to jobs, the university job corpus contains more lexical bundles of this kind (normalized frequency 9,320 vs 4,951) than the financial job corpus. It seems therefore that university job advertisements in general are more informative about the job than their financial counterparts. Or it may well be that university job advertisements are more formulaic when specifying the job. In what follows, I examine the subcategories of the *job specification* bundles in order to make a more detailed comparison of both corpora.

The first subcategory to be discussed is *attractiveness* which is shown in Table 5-43 and 5-44. The lexical bundles of this kind are used to present the attractiveness of the jobs.

Lexical bundles	**Freq.**	**Normalized freq.**	**Texts**
THIS IS AN EXCITING	83	128.98	83
IS AN EXCITING OPPORTUNITY	76	118.1	76
Total	159	247.08	159

Table 5-43 *Attractiveness* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	**Freq.**	**Normalized freq.**	**Texts**
OPPORTUNITY TO JOIN A	131	166.76	124
THIS IS AN EXCELLENT	92	117.12	89
IS AN EXCELLENT OPPORTUNITY	84	106.93	80
Total	307	390.81	293

Table 5-44 *Attractiveness* in financial job corpus

The lexical bundles in each corpus are very similar to each other, such as ‘is an exciting opportunity’ in the university corpus and ‘is an excellent opportunity’ in the financial corpus. The lexical bundle ‘is an exciting opportunity’ is in fact part of the lexical bundle ‘this

is an exciting', which makes a 5-word cluster, 'this is an exciting opportunity'. This is also the case with 'is an excellent opportunity' and 'this is an excellent' in the financial job corpus.

In terms of frequency, the financial corpus contains a higher number of these lexical bundles (normalized frequency 390.81 vs 247.08). The different evaluative lexis between both corpora may perform different kinds of evaluation. To use Martin and White's (2005) term, the academic ones use the word 'exciting' which evaluates the job opportunity in terms of *Appreciation*, that is via the emotional appeal of an entity. The financial job advertisements, on the other hand, employ the word 'excellent', which seems to evaluate the job based on an appreciation of quality. The word 'opportunity' which is used by both organizations might be an implicit evaluation. A job is not just a job but an opportunity for the applicants to realize their potential. The investigation into the phraseological patterns of these closely equivalent lexical bundles shows that they have relatively similar patterns. Below I provide the pattern of the lexical bundle 'this is an exciting'.

This is an exciting + OPPORTUNITY + (for + PERSON SPECIFICATION) + (to + JOIN/WORK/BENEFIT + EVALUATION + ORGANIZATION/TEAM)

Examples from the university job corpus are as follows:

Ex.40 This is an exciting opportunity for a research-active academic to join this leading department as a Senior Lecturer in Functional Polymers. (U2010s 1/455)

Ex.41 This is an exciting opportunity to investigate the self-assembly of peptide fragments and copolymers […] (U2010s 1598)

Ex.42 This is an exciting opportunity for an ambitious engineering graduate to fast-track their career development as a Knowledge Transfer Partnership (KTP) Research Associate in Electrical Power Systems. (U2010s 1/1950)

The pattern starts with the lexical bundle itself. This is followed by a word that means opportunity or time. It may then be followed by the preposition 'for' and a PERSON

SPECIFICATION such as a ‘research-active academic’ in example 40, but this component is optional. Another optional element is a to-infinitival clause. The verbs following ‘to’ can be divided into three groups based on their meaning: 1. JOIN (45 occurrences), 2. WORK (12 occurrences) and 3. BENEFIT (6 occurrences). In the first group are words such as ‘join’ and ‘be part of’. In the second group are actions related to work such as ‘work’ and ‘investigate’. In the last group are words related to the benefits of work such as ‘gain valuable work experience’ and ‘fast-track their career development’. The last two components which follow JOIN are EVALUATION and ORGANIZATION/ TEAM. The EVALUATION part consists of evaluative words such as ‘rapidly developing’ and ‘leading’, as in example 1. The semantic categories of these of these evaluative words are: 1. SIZE, 2) GROWTH, 3) DYNAMISM, 4) REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT, 5) INNOVATIVENESS, 7) COMPETITIVENESS, 8) VISION and 9) UNIQUENESS. Table 5-45, below, shows the categories, the evaluative lexis and frequency information. From the table it is apparent that DYNAMISM is the most salient semantic category of this pattern in the university job corpus

Semantic categories	**University job corpus**	**Freq.**	**%**
SIZE	large	1	4
GROWTH	rapidly developing, expanding, thriving (3), growing	6	24
DYNAMISM	vibrant (2), busy (2), dynamic (2), lively (2)	8	32
REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT	prestigious, world-class	2	8
INNOVATIVENESS	innovative (3)	3	12
COMPETITIVENESS	leading	1	4
VISION	forward thinking, forward looking, creative	3	12
UNIQUENESS	unique	1	4
Total		25	

Table 5-45 Semantic categories of the EVALUATION slot in university job corpus

In the financial job corpus, the lexical bundle ‘this is an excellent’ is part of a pattern that is relatively similar to the pattern of the lexical bundle ‘this is an exciting’ in the university corpus. Below I show the phraseological patterns.

This is an excellent + OPPORTUNITY + (for + PERSON SPECIFICATION) + (to + JOIN/WORK/BENEFIT + EVALUATION + ORGANIZATION)

Here are examples from the financial job corpus:

Ex.43 This is an excellent opportunity for a Junior Analyst to join a top ranked independent institutional equities broker […] (F2010 0732)

Ex.44 This is an excellent opportunity to work for an exciting, entrepreneurial organization […] (F2010 1845)

Ex.45 This is an excellent platform to take your career to an exciting new direction […] (F2010 2054)

This phraseological pattern starts with the lexical bundle ‘this is an excellent’, followed by words that mean OPPORTUNITY such as ‘opportunity’, ‘time’ and ‘chances’. The next element is ‘for’ and then PERSON SPECIFICATION, such as ‘an ambitious salesperson’ and ‘a qualified accountant’. The following element is a to-infinitival clause. The verbs following ‘to’ can be divided into three groups based on their meaning: 1. JOIN (30 instances), 2. WORK (25 instances) and 3. BENEFIT (10 instances). The first group contains words such as ‘join’ and ‘be part of’. The second group includes actions related to work such as ‘work’ and ‘assist’. The final group concerns words about the benefits of the job such as ‘secure your future’ and ‘take your career to an exciting new direction’. The last two components which follow JOIN and WORK are EVALUATION and ORGANIZATION/ TEAM. In the EVALUATION slot are words with evaluative meaning such as ‘leading’ and ‘well-established’. The semantic groups to which these evaluative words belong comprise: 1. GROWTH, 2) DYNAMISM, 3) REPUTATION/ ACHIEVEMENT, 4) RANK, 5)

COMPETITIVENESS, 6) GLOBAL REACH, 7) ESTABLISHED, 8) WEALTH, 9) VISION and 10) EMOTIONAL APPEAL. Table 5-46, below, illustrates the semantic groups, the evaluative lexis and frequency information.

Semantic categories	**Financial job corpus**	**Freq.**	**%**
GROWTH	growing (3)	3	9.38
DYNAMISM	dynamic (3)	3	9.38
REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT	prestigious (3), highly regarded, award winning, well-known, well-renowned, highly successful (3)	10	31.3
RANK	top-tier (2), top-ranked	3	9.38
COMPETITIVENESS	leading (3), market-leading (2)	5	15.6
GLOBAL REACH	global	1	3.13
ESTABLISHED	strong performing, well-established (2)	3	9.38
WEALTH	blue chip (2)	2	6.25
VISION	entrepreneurial	1	3.13
EMOTIONAL APPEAL	exciting	1	3.13
Total		32	

Table 5-46 Semantic categories of the EVALUATION slot in financial job corpus

The comparison of *attractiveness* lexical bundles in the academic and the financial job corpus indicates both similarities and differences. The phraseological patterns of these lexical bundles across the two corpora are relatively similar. The words in each slot are almost the same. However, the normalized frequencies of these lexical bundles differ considerably (247.08 in the university job corpus and 390.81 in the financial job corpus). The evaluative resources used to describe ORGANIZATION/ TEAM are slightly different. Five semantic categories in the EVALUATION slot were identified in both corpora. These are: 1) GROWTH, 2) DYNAMISM, 3) REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENT, 4) COMPETITIVENESS and 5) VISION. The categories that only appear in the university job corpus are SIZE, INNOVATIVENESS and UNIQUENESS. There are five categories that only appear in the financial job corpus: 1) RANK, 2) GLOBAL REACH, 3) ESTABLISHED, 4) WEALTH and

5) EMOTIONAL APPEAL. The difference seem to be that the university job corpus puts a stronger emphasis on intellectual excitement and a sense of purpose, whereas the financial job corpus focuses more on financial security based on the strength of employer organizations. Despite this distinction, given the highly evaluative tone of this phraseological pattern due to use of the words 'exciting', 'excellent', 'opportunity' and the EVALUATIVE slot, it is likely that this phrase is generally associated with promoting the job to the candidates. This indicates that both university and financial job advertisements contain phrases used to sell the job to the potential applicants.

The second category is *obligational stance* bundles which are used to introduce the duties or qualification requirements. Tables 5-47 and 5-48 below show the lexical bundles in each corpus.

Lexical bundles	**Freq.**	**Normalized freq.**	**Texts**
WILL BE EXPECTED TO	426	661.98	370
WILL BE RESPONSIBLE FOR	209	324.77	193
WILL BE REQUIRED TO	205	318.56	190
YOU WILL BE EXPECTED	150	233.09	137
YOU WILL BE REQUIRED	112	174.04	107
YOU WILL NEED A	108	167.83	59
BE EXPECTED TO CONTRIBUTE	102	158.5	94
MUST BE ABLE TO	101	156.95	96
YOU WILL BE RESPONSIBLE	98	152.29	91
ALSO BE EXPECTED TO	97	150.73	95
WILL ALSO BE EXPECTED	97	150.73	95
YOU SHOULD HAVE A	97	150.73	97
EXPECTED TO CONTRIBUTE TO	90	139.85	85
APPLICANTS SHOULD HAVE A	88	136.75	88
SHOULD HAVE A PHD	76	118.1	76
TO BE CONSIDERED FOR	76	118.1	76
Total	2132	3313	1949

Table 5-47 *Obligational stance* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
WILL BE RESPONSIBLE FOR	391	497.74	336
MUST BE ABLE TO	180	229.14	164
YOU WILL BE RESPONSIBLE	170	216.41	151
WILL BE EXPECTED TO	145	184.58	120
YOU WILL NEED TO	108	137.48	85
BE RESPONSIBLE FOR THE	100	127.30	91
WILL BE REQUIRED TO	98	124.75	93
Total	1192	1517.42	1040

Table 5-48 *Obligational stance* in financial job corpus

Both corpora share many similar lexical bundles, namely, 'must be able to', 'will be expected to', 'will be required to', 'will be responsible for', 'you will be responsible' and 'you will need a/to'. The business ads contain more lexical bundles which have strong deontic modality, i.e. 'must', in them. The rest have weak deontic modality, 'need', and also involve grammatical metaphor such as 'will be expected to' and 'will be required to'. The 'You will be responsible' phrase conjures up an imagined situation in which the applicant is accepted and works in the organization. This is due to the modal 'will' which suggests a future event. The use of the pronoun 'you' seems to make the statements more interactive as they directly address the reader.

The final subcategory of job-related lexical bundles is *salary*. While *salary* lexical bundles are absent from the financial job corpus, the university job corpus contains ten types and 1,120 tokens of salary lexical bundles. The *salary* lexical bundles in the university corpus are shown in Table 5-49, below.

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
INCLUSIVE OF LONDON ALLOWANCE	154	239.31	151
PER ANNUM INCLUSIVE OF	139	216	137
THE APPOINTMENT WILL BE	139	216	139
ANNUM INCLUSIVE OF LONDON	128	198.9	127
PER ANNUM PRO RATA	108	167.83	101
APPOINTMENT WILL BE ON	102	158.5	102
SALARY RANGE WILL BE	94	146.07	94
THE SALARY RANGE WILL	93	144.52	93
FINAL SALARY PENSION SCHEME	92	142.96	91
IN THE RANGE POUND	71	110.33	71
Total	1120	1740.41	1106

Table 5-49 *Salary* in university job corpus

The lexical bundles mainly contain the word ‘salary’ or sometimes the word ‘appointment’ which refers to the salary scale of the job. The absence of the *salary* lexical bundle from the financial job corpus does not mean that financial job advertisements do not mention salary. During manual analysis of the sampled texts, I found that the financial job advertisements write about the salary in a very persuasive manner and in a variety of ways. In addition, the format of the website requires the companies to state the salary and they often write ‘competitive’, which is only one word. The creative phrasing and concise statement of salary may account for the absence of four-word strings related to salary in the financial job corpus.

5.3.3.4 *Soliciting response: Qualifying directives*

Fifth, *soliciting a response* bundles show a stark contrast between the university and financial job advertisement corpora. The first subcategory is *qualifying directives*, which are shown in Tables 5-50 and 5-51, below.

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
IF YOU WISH TO	72	111.88	71

Table 5-50 *Qualifying directives* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
IF YOU WOULD LIKE	99	126.03	99
YOU WOULD LIKE TO	96	122.21	96
IF YOU ARE INTERESTED	79	100.57	79
Total	274	348.80	274

Table 5-51 *Qualifying directives* in financial job corpus

From the table, the financial job advertisements seem to urge the reader to be interested and apply. In the university job advertisements, the bundles in fact are used to state the requirements, as the sentence is 'An application form must be completed if you wish to be considered for this post'.

5.3.3.5 *Equal opportunity*

The sixth main category, *equal opportunity*, shows a clear disparity between the two corpora. Tables 5-52, 5-53 and 5-54, below, show *equal opportunity* lexical bundles in each corpus.

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
FROM ALL SECTIONS OF	201	312.34	201
APPLICATIONS FROM ALL SECTIONS	192	298.36	192
ALL SECTIONS OF THE	190	295.25	190
SECTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY	186	289.03	186
IS COMMITTED TO EQUALITY	180	279.71	175
AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES EMPLOYER	164	254.85	164
TO EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY	163	253.29	158
COMMITTED TO EQUALITY OF	162	251.74	157
THE UNIVERSITY VALUES DIVERSITY	161	250.18	159
COMMITTED TO EQUALITY AND	144	223.77	143
EQUALITY AND VALUING DIVERSITY	125	194.24	124
AND IS COMMITTED TO	119	184.92	117
TO EQUALITY AND VALUING	116	180.26	115
DIVERSITY AND IS COMMITTED	112	174.04	110
VALUES DIVERSITY AND IS	111	172.49	109
WELCOME APPLICATIONS FROM ALL	111	172.49	111
UNIVERSITY VALUES DIVERSITY AND	110	170.93	108
AND WELCOME APPLICATIONS FROM	106	164.72	106
EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES EMPLOYER AND	96	149.18	96
WELCOMES APPLICATIONS FROM ALL	79	122.76	80
BE AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES	76	118.1	76
TO BE AN EQUAL	76	118.1	76
AND WELCOMES APPLICATIONS FROM	71	110.33	71
PARTICULARLY WELCOME APPLICATIONS FROM	71	110.33	71
total	3122	4851.4	3095

Table 5-52 *Equal opportunity* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
A STONEWALL DIVERSITY CHAMPION	106	164.72	105
ARE ALSO AN ATHENA	93	144.52	92
ATHENA SILVER SWAN AWARD	93	144.52	89
SILVER SWAN AWARD WINNER	93	144.52	89
WE ARE ALSO AN	93	144.52	92
AN ATHENA SILVER SWAN	90	139.85	89
ALSO AN ATHENA SILVER	71	110.33	71
Total	639	992.97	627

Table 5-53 *Award* in university job corpus

Lexical bundles	Freq.	Normalized freq.	Texts
AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER	156	198.59	155
IS AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY	156	198.59	155
Total	312	397.18	310

Table 5-54 *Equal opportunity* in financial job corpus

This type of bundle can be further divided into 1) *equal opportunity statement* and 2) *awards*. Apparently, from the tables above, the university job advertisements contain a greater variety of lexical bundles with higher frequency. In addition, they use equal opportunity awards as a way to advertise themselves. The financial job advertisements, in contrast, display only two lexical bundle types of *equal opportunity statement* and these two are in fact part of the same phrase, 'is an equal opportunity employer'

5.3.4 Summary and general discussion of lexical bundle analysis

This section has argued that lexical bundle analysis can be used to investigate the conventionalised ideology which is manifested in the phraseology of job advertisements. Lexical bundle analysis reveals both similarities and differences between university and financial job advertisements. It seems that the majority of lexical bundles that show similarities mark the genre of job advertisements, while differences index features unique to each institution. However, the analysis also reveals lexical bundles that are used for self-promotion and job selling, indicating that these two communicative functions are becoming a common practice in universities' order of discourse.

The investigation into the lexical bundles deployed for persuasive purposes led to interesting findings and serves as triangulation for collocation analysis. The lexical bundle 'is one of the' is employed to promote the organization. The lexical bundles 'this is an exciting' and 'this is an excellent' are used persuasively to sell the job to potential applicants. These

three lexical bundles are embedded in semantic sequences with a slot for evaluative meaning. They thus show a connection between three theoretical constructs: lexical bundles (Biber, Conrad & Cortes, 2004), semantic sequences (Susan Hunston, 2008) and evaluative/ attitudinal meaning (Thompson & Hunston, 2000). The EVALUATION slot serves to triangulate with collocation analysis and the findings are largely the same. The semantic categories of the EVALUATION slot between the academic and business job corpora are comparatively similar. Nonetheless, the slight differences lie in the stronger emphasis on wealth and reputation in financial job advertisements and the strong emphasis on intellectual excitement in university job advertisements. As a result, the lexical bundle analysis strengthens and confirms the findings of the collocation analysis.

Apart from similarities, the lexical bundle analysis indicates the differences between university and financial job advertisements as well. When considering some lexical bundles such as 'applications are invited for' vs 'we are looking for' in relation to the diachronic analysis, it seems that there are university job advertisements which are written in the style of traditional university job advertisements and those containing features of financial job advertisements. The discursive practices of job advertisement production in universities are therefore not entirely homogenous. Furthermore, in university job advertisements, there seem to be more lexical bundles used to exert power, such as 'if you wish to' and implicitly to proclaim the prestige of academic job, as in 'is seeking to appoint'. These findings, as such, point towards hybridity in university job advertisements and the identity of universities constructed in discourse. University job advertisements serve a promotional function and at the same time present universities as gate-keepers for new members.

The lexical bundle analysis has proven useful but it has limitations and raises some questions. As pointed out earlier, in sections 5.3.3.1 and 5.3.3.3, the same discursive actions

can be taken with just one or two words. The fact that some lexical bundles only appear in one corpus and not the other raises a question as to whether the texts in that corpus do not perform that discursive action (for example, stating salary) or just use fewer words, or different ones, which generally mean the same. The focus on high frequency lexical bundles means that low frequency lexical bundles are left out. As Baker (2006) argues, some words with lower frequency might be interesting as well. And in fact what is absent might even be more powerful because something might be taken for granted and thus not stated.

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have investigated university and financial job advertisements synchronically, using corpus linguistic methodology. Keyword analysis does not contribute substantially to the analysis of marketized discourse. Collocation analysis of organizational reference terms proved insightful. It casts light on the underlying value systems when it comes to constructing organizational identity and also suggests that in university discourse business values are overtaking academic values. The analysis indicates a high degree of similarity between university and financial job advertisements, both in terms of types of evaluative resources and the degree of emphasis that each corpus places on each evaluative resource. Regarding the differences, it seems that the university job corpus focuses more on presenting the employer organizations as intellectually enthusiastic, visionary and caring, while the financial job corpus accentuates wealth and outright self-promotion. The business values are, however, more dominant in university discourse as shown when ranking the semantic categories according to their frequency. The collocation analysis of applicants' reference terms often led to requirements and duties instead of instances where advertisers try to sell the job to the applicants.

The lexical bundle analysis revealed phraseology that reflects routinized ideology. Although most of the lexical bundles typify the genre of job advertisements, there are two categories of lexical bundles that, as I argue earlier, are employed for self-promotion and persuasion. These are *organizational identification* and *job specification: attractiveness.* What is more, these two kinds of lexical bundles are embedded within a larger semantic sequence with a slot for evaluative terms describing the employer organization. As such, they show that self-promotion and job selling are routinized and entrenched in the recruitment discourse of UK universities. However, the university job advertisements also contain a higher number of lexical bundles that are used for requirements as well. The overall picture then is that university job advertisements contain hybridized features of promoting and gate-keeping.

CHAPTER 6 GENRE ANALYSIS

This chapter reports on a number of comparisons between university and financial job advertisements in the 1970s and in 2010s and traces intertextuality, interdiscursivity and genre-mixing in job advertisements. In so doing, this chapter argues that the increasing commercialization of university job advertisements can be revealed through the identification of promotional features which are instantiations of market ideology. Evidence to support this argument consists of: 1) promotional moves, 2) the inclusion of logos and strap lines – a marketing strategy serving to promote brand recognition, 3) the use of salient typographical features to highlight promotional information and 4) the embedding of two genres that function to promote universities – employer profile and employer video. As will be shown below, the converging trend between academic and business discourse is noticeable but such a trend is not definite. The discussion of diachronic changes below indicates that changes might be argued to be an effect of two sources: the Web design and marketization of universities. However, it is argued that the latter seems to be more influential and the former might be exploited in the service of the latter.

This chapter consists of five sections. Section 6.1 presents the move structure of job advertisements. Section 6.2 compares overall move and step distribution across the data. Section 6.3 goes beyond move structure, focusing on the logos, strap lines, salient information in job advertisements and move clustering that is made salient or found in a salient part of texts. Section 6.4 introduces two genres that are embedded within 2010s job advertisements – employer profile and employer video. The final section concludes and discusses the findings

of the genre status of university job advertisements in relation to the marketization of university recruitment discourse.

6.1 STRUCTURE OF JOB ADVERTISEMENTS: GENRE ANALYSIS

According to Fairclough (2003, 2010), genre is a means of acting or interacting discursively in a social event. Genre is shaped by the social practices within institutions or social domains as well as other institutions and social domains which are networked together. It is claimed that when there is social institutional change, new genres may emerge or existing genres may be integrated, resulting in the mixing of different genres within a genre chain (Fairclough, 2003: 34-5). Fairclough (1992) states that genre contains a set of activity types which form a generic structure and realize the communicative purpose of the genre. Apart from the structure of a text, genre can also influence other features, such as the syntactic and semantic relations between clauses and sentences, speech function as well as the ways in which different texts and discourses are drawn upon.

The notion of text structure accords with Swales' (1990) and Bhatia's (2004) concept of genre, which is a communicative event consisting of a particular set of communicative purposes that form a schematic structure. To capture this structure, texts can be analyzed in terms of moves which are discourse units performing a particular communicative function. Moreover, a move can be further subdivided into steps which are different ways in which a move can be realized. A genre comprises a regular pattern of move structures which are recognizable by expert discourse community members. The boundary of each move can be detected from some linguistic feature pointing to the communicative action that is being realized. A move can be a phrase, a sentence or even a number of paragraphs. I therefore compare the moves and their frequency in job advertisements of both data sets to investigate if the job advertisements produced by universities and financial services organizations

perform the same kind of rhetorical actions within the job advertisements genre. As such, the close reading of texts leads to a formulation of the move structure which I use to code each text. It is an iterative process involving identifying moves, coding the data, finding new moves and recoding the data. The findings of move structure are given below. Examples from the university job corpus are marked with (U) followed by the year and codes, and those of the financial financial corpus are marked with (F) and the year and codes. For the date from which the 1970s data were taken from see Appendix 4.

Move 1 Establishing credentials

In this move, organizations persuade potential applicants that they are well established, competitive, fast growing and prestigious. This is to convince potential applicants that once they work for the organization, they can benefit from its influence and thus have an opportunity 'to shine'. To realize this move, the organization may outline their accomplishments, expand on their missions or policies, or detail the projects which they are undertaking.

Step 1: Announcing the organization's achievements

The organization can illustrate its accomplishments in many respects. It can describe how well established they are, how many clients they have, the services they provide, etc. Examples from my data are shown below:

*Ex.1 The University of York is consistently **ranked in the top ten** universities in the UK […]. (U2010s 1/264)*

*Ex.2 A mini revolution is occurring at this **established** and **growing** private banking group that is headquartered in London but with **significant offshore and international subsidiaries**. (F2010 423)*

In example 1, the university boasts its achievement based on its ranking, as shown in 'ranked in the top ten'. In the second example, the company proclaims its achievements in

terms of its stability, expansion and international scope which can be seen from ‘established’, ‘growing’ and ‘significant offshore and international subsidiaries’, respectively.

Step 2: Publicizing the organization’s missions and policies

Another way to make advertisements convincing to readers is to outline the organization’s missions or policies. This can inform potential applicants about the work of the organization as well as its plan, showing its prospective future that can in turn help candidates progress in their career. In addition, it might be a branding message that applicants need to embrace once they too become part of the organization. Examples are given below:

*Ex.3 The Department of Economics **is committed to** the knowledge and understanding of economic principles and issues through excellence in research and teaching. (U2010s 496)*

*Ex.4 Ernst and Young is in the business of delivering **seamless, consistent, high quality** professional services worldwide. (F2010 1032)*

Both examples indicate the mission of the organization. The phrase ‘is committed to’ in 3 shows the determination of the university, and what follows is the mission they are trying to achieve. The positive evaluation of the mission, such as ‘seamless’, ‘consistent’ and ‘high-quality’, persuades the reader to believe in the great work that the organization does and that they are going to get involved in.

Step 3: Acknowledging sponsorship

This step is more typical of university job advertisements, especially those advertising fellowships. In this step, the advertisement provides the title of the funding body. This might show the prestige of the sponsor and in turn grant more credentials to the research project. An example is given below:

*Ex.5 The project is **financed by the Leverhulme Trust Fund**. (U1974 17)*

Move 2 Introducing a job vacancy

In this move, organizations state the main purpose of creating the advertisement, i.e. recruiting a new employee. Job advertisements frame this communicative purpose in four ways: 1) announcing availability, 2) invite applications for the job, 3) announcing a search and 4) offering the job.

Step 1: Announcing availability

In this step, organizations announce available posts to potential applicants. This move occurs at the heading of the advertisement and also reappears in the body. Here are two examples from my data.

Ex.6 A LECTURERSHIP or ASSISTANT LECTURERSHIP in PSYCHOLOGY ***will be available*** *from 1st October 1972. (U1972 13).*

Ex.7 A leading Merchant Bank ***needs*** *an Assistant Accountant for a new appointment at its City headquarters. (F1972 7)*

The first example uses the phrase 'will be available' to signal the availability of the post. In example 7, the word 'needs' shows that a post is available in the company.

Step 2: Inviting applications

Move 2 Step 2 encourages potential applicants to apply for the job. The constructions *ORGANIZATION + invites application for* or *applications are invited for* are frequently used in university job advertisements but they are rarely used in financial job advertisements for this purpose.

Ex.8 ***Applications are invited for*** *the full-time post of Library Assistant at the Pendlebury Library of Music. (U2010s 272)*

*Ex.9 We **invite applications** from Foreign Exchange dealers […] (F1974 8).*

Example 8 shows that university job advertisements often use the construction 'Applications are invited for' when realizing this step. The financial job advertisement uses the phrase 'We invite applications'. In fact, the business ones rarely use this step, but this is discussed further in section 6.2.

Step 3: Announcing a search

This step involves the framing of job advertisements as an active search for the right person for the organization, instead of simply stating that there is a job vacancy, as in step 1. This is evidenced from words such as 'search', 'looking for' and 'seek', which seem to make the advertisements more active and more informal. Excerpts from both types of job advertisements are as follows:

*Ex.10 We **seek** an applied GIS analyst with an interest in the application of spatial analytic methods […] (U2010s 1165)*

*Ex.11 JP Morgan in Bournemouth **are** [sic] urgently **seeking** a Recruitment Administrator. (F2010 0532)*

Step 4: Offering the job

In this step, the advertiser phrases the advertisement as an offer or something beneficial to potential applicants. This can be seen from the words 'offer' and 'opportunity' in examples 12 and 13, below:

*Ex.12 The School **offers** STUDENTSHIPS in these subjects. (U1972 7)*
*Ex.13 This is an **opportunity** to join the international division of one of the foremost British financial institutions. (F1974 2)*

Move 3 Detailing the job

This move provides information about the position that the organization is advertising. It may outline the responsibilities of this role, namely, to whom the role holder will have to report, what they are expected to do, who they will work in collaboration with, where they will work, employment type, the length of the contract, etc.

Step 1: Describing the work scope

This step outlines the responsibilities of this role, namely, to whom the role holder will have to report, what they are expected to do, who they will work in collaboration with, etc. Examples are as follows:

Ex.16 The successful candidate will form part of a small team responsible for providing library services to students, alumni and staff within a global environment. (U2010s 1/1868)

Ex.17 Key responsibilities of the job will include the monthly management reporting pack for review of the CEO and providing information for the bi-annual updates. (F2010 0988)

Step 2: Specifying the work location

This step informs potential applicants where they will work once they are accepted for the position. In some cases, the advertisements provide this information in the body text while others do so in the header. On the eFinancialCareers website, this information is in the header. Here are two examples:

Ex.18 Location – Leicester (U 2010s 1/437)

Ex.19 UK-London (F2010 1032)

Step 3: Significance of the position

Instead of stating the specific work scope, organizations may write about how important the position is and how important the contributions from applicants are. This can be seen from the words ‘important’ or ‘integral’, as shown in examples 20 and 21, respectively.

*Ex.20 The role plays an **important** part in the development of novel equipment to meet the needs of researchers […]. (U2010s 1/2484)*

*Ex.21 In this role you will become an **integral** part of a well managed and stable team. (F2010 0647)*

Step 4: Contract information

This step provides detail about the employment type, length of the contract, start date, etc. Sometimes it is identified in the body of the advertisement. In many cases, however, it is in the header. The format of the website causes this variation.

Ex.22 Fixed term contract until March 2014. (U2010s 1892)

Ex.23 Permanent

Full time. (F2010 1781)

Move 4 Stating requirements

This move shows the qualification requirements for a position. The requirements seem to be of various types, including, knowledge or education requirements, work experience, attributes, legal and procedural requirements. Examples are given below:

Step 1: Knowledge or educational requirements

*Ex.24 Applicants should have a First or Upper Second class honours **degree**, ideally a Masters **degree** in Engineering or Mathmatics* […] *(U2010s 1564)*
*Ex.25 Candidates should have an excellent **academic background** and possess well developed computing and communication skills. (F2010 2814)*

Step 2: Work experience

*Ex.26 The person selected for this position must be able to show that they have relevant practical **experience** of the following* […] (U2010s 1622)

*Ex.27 This is a role for someone who has serious risk **experience** in a hedge fund, bank or brokerage. (F2010 1781)*

Step 3: Required attributes

*Ex.28 You will be a **self-starter, highly organized and good at prioritizing work** in a busy and demanding work environment. (U2010s 1812)*

*Ex.29 They should have the **ability to work under pressure** and within tight time lines. (F2010 2166)*

Step 4: Legal requirements

Ex.30 Regrettably we are unable to consider applications from candidates who require T2 or T5 working visa or work permit. (U2010s 1/1472)

Ex.31 Eligibility to work in the UK. (F2010 1032)

Step 5: Demographic specifications

This requirement is about gender, age and other demographic information about potential applicants, as in the examples below:

*Ex.32 An Administrative Assistant, **preferably no less than 30 years of age**, is required […] (U1972 11)*
*Ex.33 Candidates, probably **27-35**, will for preference be MIPR or MInstM. (F1972 9)*

Step 6: Procedural requirements

An advertisement might require potential candidates to do something as part of the application procedure. For instance, it might request a specific number of copies of their CV.

Ex.34 Letters of application should be accompanied by a curriculum vitae, and the names of two academic references. (U1972 1).

Move 5 Offering incentives

This move persuades the reader to apply for the job by describing what they can expect in return. There are four types of incentives, and thus four steps, namely, remuneration, professional development, convenient location/ facilities and working environment.

Step 1: Remuneration

An organization may offer incentives to potential applicants by showing the salary they can expect to earn as well as other benefits, such as the entitlement to use certain facilities. This information sometimes appears in the body and sometimes in the header.

Ex.35 ***Salary*** *will be within the Professorial range, minimum £55,758 per annum. (U2010s 1/1907)*

Ex.36 […] ***a rewarding package*** *will be on offer to the right candidate. (F2010 0988)*

Step 2: Professional development

This step persuades the reader that they have many opportunities to progress in the organization. Examples are as follows:

Ex.37 The posts ***offer the opportunity*** *for those with* ***excellent potential*** *as clinical academics to complete Specialist Training, further develop their academic skills, and compete for external grant funding. (U 2010s 1971)*

Ex.38 Whether your career lies in assurance, tax, transaction, advisory or core business services, you will be joining an organisation where you count as an individual and everything you need for ***professional and personal success*** *is already in place. (F2010 1249)*

Step 3: Work environment and facilities

Another type of incentive is the tools and technology needed for the work or locations suitable for working and living.

Ex.39 The unit ***has facilities*** *available for optical and electron microscopy, mechanical testing, data processing, small scale process plant and chemical analysis. (U1972 3)*

Ex.40 ***Working conditions*** *are excellent. (F1972 5).*

Move 6 Soliciting a response

At the end of the advertisement, the organization solicits a response from the reader. This can be done explicitly by encouraging readers to send their applications or implicitly by explaining the application procedure and giving contact information. Here are two examples:

Ex.41 For further information and to apply online, please visit our website […] *(U2010s 1/264)*

Ex.42 To apply to [sic] this position, follow the 'apply now' link. (F2010 1182)

Move 7 Legal issues

In this move, the advertisers make a statement related to legal issues. For instance, they may indicate their compliance with equal opportunity law, their legal status or whom the employer is in the case of job advertisements produced by a recruitment agency.

Ex.43 We value diversity and welcome applications from all sections of the community. (U2010s 4/376)

Ex.44 UBS is an equal opportunity employer. (F2010 1267)

To give an idea of how this generic structure is realized, an analysis of sample job advertisements is provided in Appendix 5. Table 6-1 summarizes the moves identification, and these moves provide the coding protocols for my data analysis.

Move 1 Establishing credentials	Step 1: Announcing the organization's achievements Step: 2 Publicizing the organization's missions and policies Step 3: Acknowledging sponsorship
Move 2 Introducing a job vacancy	Step 1: Announcing availability Step 2: Inviting applications Step 3: Announcing a search Step 4: Offering the job
Move 3 Detailing the job	Step 1: Describing the work scope Step 2: Specifying the work location Step 3: Significance of the position Step 4: Contract information
Move 4 Stating requirements	Step 1: Knowledge or education requirements Step 2: Work experience Step 3: Required attributes Step 4: Legal requirements Step 5: Demographic specifications Step 6: Procedural requirements
Move 5 Offering incentives	Step 1: Remuneration Step 2: Professional development Step 3: Work environment and facilities
Move 6 Soliciting a response	
Move 7 Legal issues	

Table 6-1 Move coding

The identification of move structure is subject to inter-rater reliability test. In this study, there are two inter-raters who are both PhD students of Applied Linguistics and work on genre analysis. They were given a coding protocol and practised with a few job advertisements from the corpus. We discussed when there were any problems with data analysis and move coding, resulting in changes to the labelling of move 3 from 'Detailing job Specification' to 'Detailing the job' to avoid confusion between the word 'specification' and 'requirements', which are fairly close. After that, they were given 12 job advertisements which were used for manual analysis – three from each data set. The statistical measure is Cohen Kappa. The kappa value of the first inter-rater is 0.951 and for the second inter-rater it is 0.965, all of which are statistically signficant ($P < 0.001$). This indicates a high degree of

agreement between my coding and theirs, thereby showing the reliability of my move-coding framework.

6.2 OVERALL MOVE AND STEP DISTRIBUTION

The move frequency of each data set is provided in Table 6-2, below. The numbers in the table indicate the number of job advertisements that contain the moves. Figure 6-1 is an alternative representation of the same information in the form of bar charts.

Move	**U1970s**	**F1970s**	**U 2010s**	**F2010**
Move 1 Establishing credentials	**10**	55	**39**	55
Move 2 Introducing a job vacancy	60	60	60	60
Move 3 Detailing the job	60	50	60	60
Move 4 Stating the requirements	42	60	57	60
Move 5 Offering incentives	58	60	55	60
Move 6 Soliciting a response	60	59	58	**32**
Move 7 Legal issues	0	0	25	4

Table 6-2 Move distribution

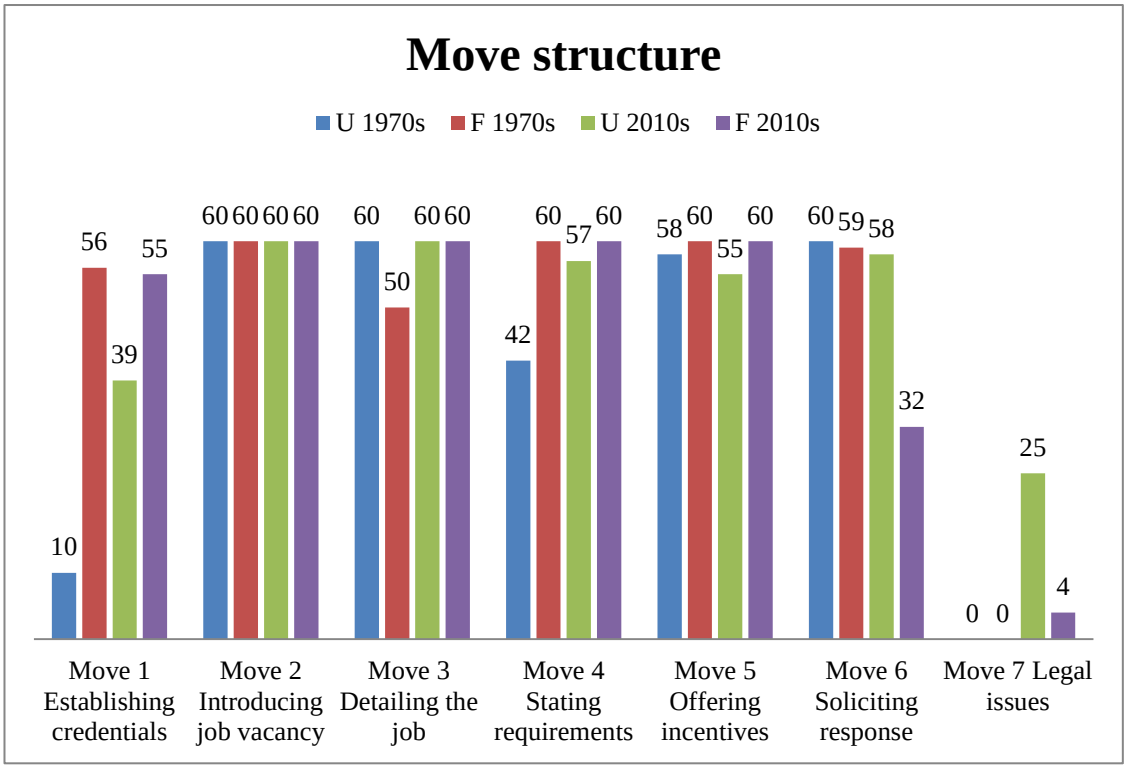


Figure 6-1 Move distribution

From the table, it is apparent that Move 1, *Establishing credentials* in university job advertisements, dramatically increases in the 2010s (10 in 1970s vs 39 in 2010s), whereas the frequency of financial job advertisements that contain this move remains relatively stable at 55. This move indicates the promotional nature of texts. Bhatia (2005: 218) notes that advertisements that contain this move persuade the reader through 'image-building' or 'brand popularization', and in fact an increase in university branding has been noted by several researchers of education literature (c.f. Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana, 2007). This process may explain the increasing number of university job advertisements that use this move as a self-proclamation device aimed at attracting new staff.

Regarding Move 3, *Detailing the jobs*, the graph seems to suggest that financial job advertisements are becoming more similar to university job advertisements. However, this

seems to do with the format of websites, which require certain information, as will be discussed below.

There is also an increase in the number of university job advertisements containing Move 4, *Stating requirements*. This might be due to issues of accountability as organizations have to clarify what applicants are required to have or to do. This information is also compulsory in the job advertisement templates of many universities and my interview with an HR official reveals that the HR department has a duty to check that a person specification is provided in job advertisements.

Another noticeable trend is a sharp drop in the financial financial job advertisements that contain Move 6, *Soliciting a response*. While there were 59 financial financial job advertisements in 1970s that have this move, only 32 financial financial job advertisements in the 2010s have it. In the university job data, the number of job advertisements that contain this move remains relatively static. This phenomenon might be attributable to the layout of webpages, because there is an 'apply now' tab at the beginning and end of every job advertisements on the eFinancialCareers website. Therefore, the Web layout has made this move redundant.

Finally, other elements are not identified in 1970s university job advertisements but appear in other data sets to a varying degree. This is an indication of how social change influences changes in discursive practices. I elaborate on this point when the analysis of the steps within each move is presented below.

Move 1 is divided into three steps. The frequency distribution of each step in *Move 1: Establishing credentials* is shown in Figure 6-2.

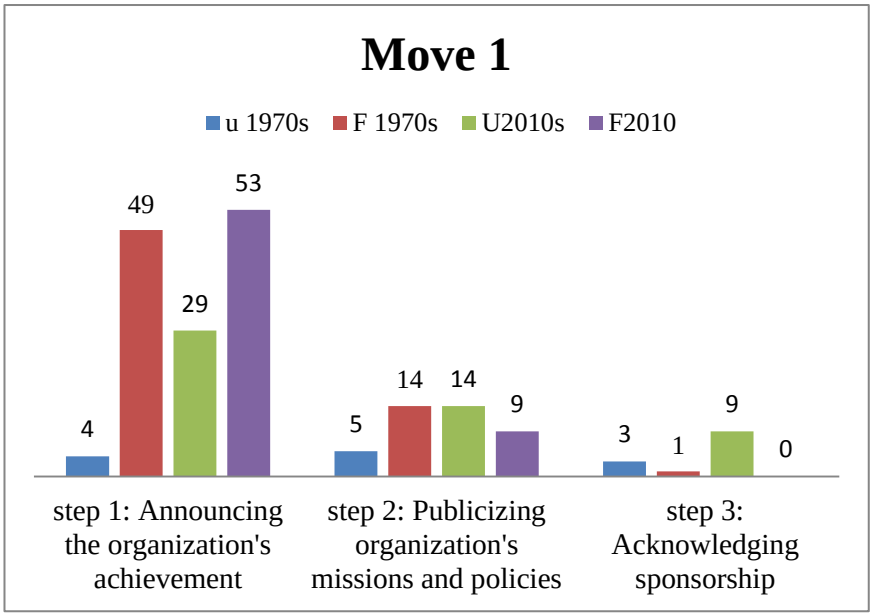


Figure 6-2 Frequency of steps in Move 1

The 2010s university job advertisements show an increase in the frequency of each step, especially step 1 which rises from 4 to 29. The financial financial job advertisements, on the other hand, show only slight changes in the frequency of each step, i.e. from 49 to 53 for step 1, from 14 to 9 for step 2 and from 1 to 0 in step 3. The surge in each step of this move in university job advertisements supports Fairclough's (1993) claim that the discursive practices of universities are becoming more like those of business. Even though there is still a gap between the 2010s university job advertisements and the 2010 financial job advertisements, a converging pattern is observable. Interestingly, in step 2, it seems that 2010s university job advertisements have become more similar to 1970s financial job advertisements. This might be another tendency whereby university job advertisements lag behind financial job advertisements. That is, instead of resembling present day financial job advertisements, they resemble financial job advertisements of the past. All in all, the rising number of university job advertisements that contain move 1, regardless of the step and regardless of whether they resemble 1970s or 2010 financial job advertisements, indicates the increasing promotional

feature of university job advertisements and I would argue that this is an impact of marketization.

The frequency distribution of steps in Move 2 is shown in Figure 6-3.

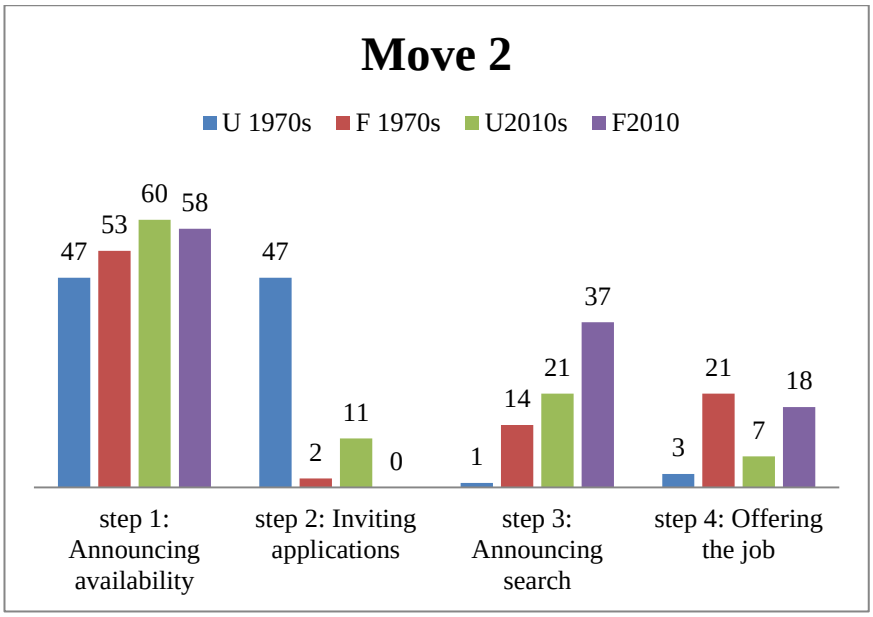


Figure 6-3 Frequency of steps in Move 2

The steps in move 2 are relatively complementary to each other, because they are different ways of realizing the same move. It follows that a decrease in one may increase another. The frequency of steps in move 2 is shown in Figure 6-3. From the graph, the frequency seems relatively stable for step 1. However, in the university job data, there is a dramatic drop in the number of job advertisements that contain *step 2: Inviting applications* (from 47 in the 1970s to only 11 in the 2010s). This is due to the changing phraseology of the 2010s. The 1970s university job advertisements use the phrase 'applications are invited', but this is replaced by the phrase 'we are looking for' and 'we are seeking' in the 2010s university job advertisements, resulting in a rapid surge in *step 3: Announcing a search* (from 1 in the 1970s to 21 in the 2010s). Interestingly, financial job advertisements also use this step more

frequently as well (from 14 in the 1970s to 37 in the 2010s). The phrase 'applications are invited' sounds formal, due to the use of a passive construction and nominalization. Phrases such as 'we are looking for' in step 3 seem more personal, with use of the personal pronoun 'we', and more dynamic with the use of the progressive aspect. These linguistic features indicate that 2010s job advertisements are more informal and more interactive than 1970s job advertisements. This is in line with a general trend in language change, namely, colloquialization and democratization (Leech, Hundt, Smith & Mair, 2009). There is also an increase in step 4 in 2010s university job advertisements as they construct job advertisements as an opportunity for applicants to realize their potential.

In move 3, there are several diachronic changes in steps 1, 2, 3 and 4, as shown in Figure 6-4, below:

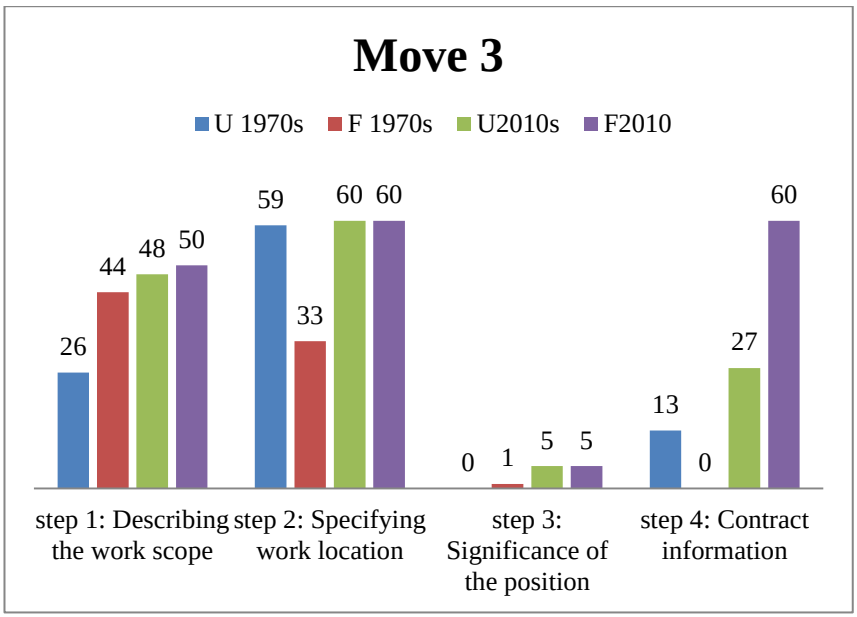


Figure 6-4 Frequency of steps in Move 3

For *Step 1: Describing the work scope*, 48 academic job adverts contain this step in comparison to 26 in 1970s university job advertisements. I think that the increase is

associated with the accountability of university job advertisements, as they need to state clearly what work is expected of successful applicants. In fact, an HR officer that I interviewed stated that the HR department needs to check this information before it is published. Regarding *step 2: Specifying the work location*, all of the 2010 financial job advertisements contain this step while only 33 in the 1970s have it. This is actually due to the format of the website which requires every job advertisement to specify the work location. The same holds true for *step 4: Contract information* in the 2010 financial job advertisements. The increase in step 4 of financial job advertisements results from the format of the website as well. With respect to *step 3: Significance of the position*, there are only a few university and financial job advertisements which contain this move. Yet, this move seems persuasive because it indicates that the applicants will play an important role in the organization. While the 1970s job advertisements rarely contain it, the number of job advertisements that have it increases in the 2010s, indicating that both university and financial job advertisements have become slightly more persuasive.

Move 4 *Stating requirements* is summarized in Figure 6-5, below.

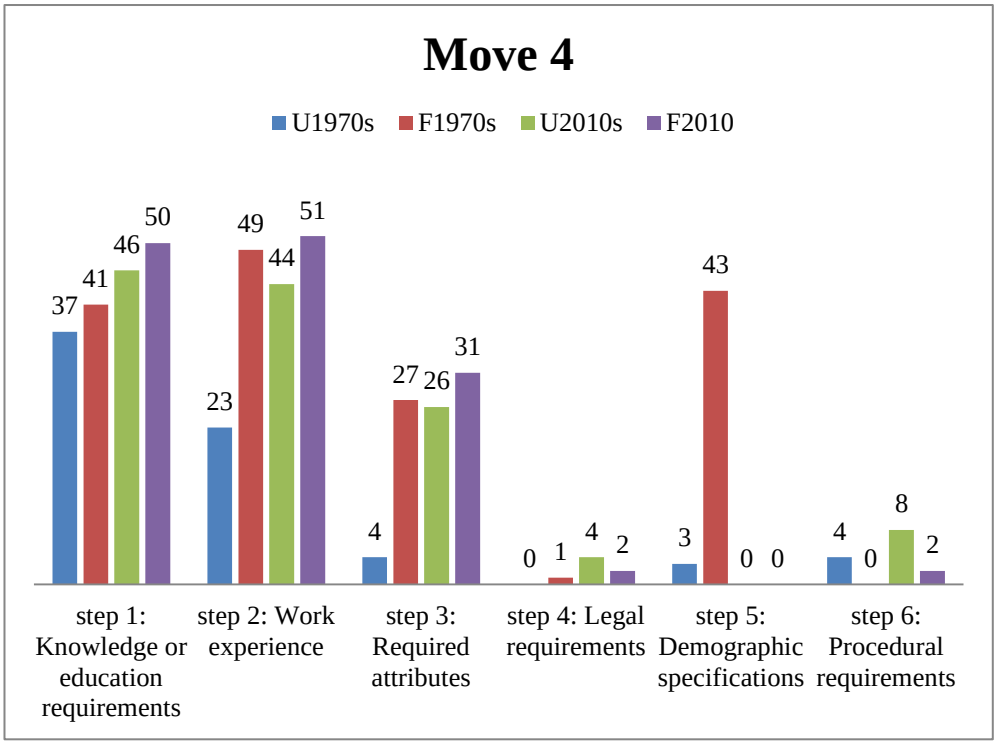


Figure 6-5 Frequency of steps in Move 4

The number of university job advertisements that have *step 2: Work experience* and *step 3: Required attributes* have sharply increased in 2010s (23 in 1970s vs. 44 in 2010s for step 2 and 4 in 1970s vs. 26 in 2010s for step 3). Work experience and personal characteristic seems to be more important in the 2010s job advertisements. Another trend is that there are no job advertisements in 2010s that contain *step 5: Demographic specifications*. This results from the introduction of equal opportunity law which prohibits employers from discriminating applicants based on gender, race, age, disability, etc.

Within the body of the 2010s university job advertisements, there are paragraphs of texts that cannot be labelled according to the move coding framework. These appear in studentship advertisements and they are extracts from research proposal or research reports and thus constitute a separate, inserted text. An example is given below.

Ex.44 The most commonly cited driver of this long-term climate change is a gradual decline in the CO2 concentration of the atmosphere due to a subtle imbalance between silicate weathering (CO2 sink) and volcanic out-gassing (CO2 source). Our current proxy records, however, do not support this assertion, suggesting either that factors other than CO2 control long-term climate change or that our records of CO2 in early Cenozoic are inaccurate. […] (U 2010s 2/11)

6.3 BEYOND MOVE STRUCTURE: LOGOS, STRAP LINES AND INFORMATION SALIENCY

Apart from move frequency distribution, other observations can be made regarding the saliency of the information and elements other than moves. This is perhaps best illustrated by the juxtaposition of typical examples of university job advertisements in 1970s and 2010s as shown below:

Figure 6-6 An example of the 1970s university job advertisements

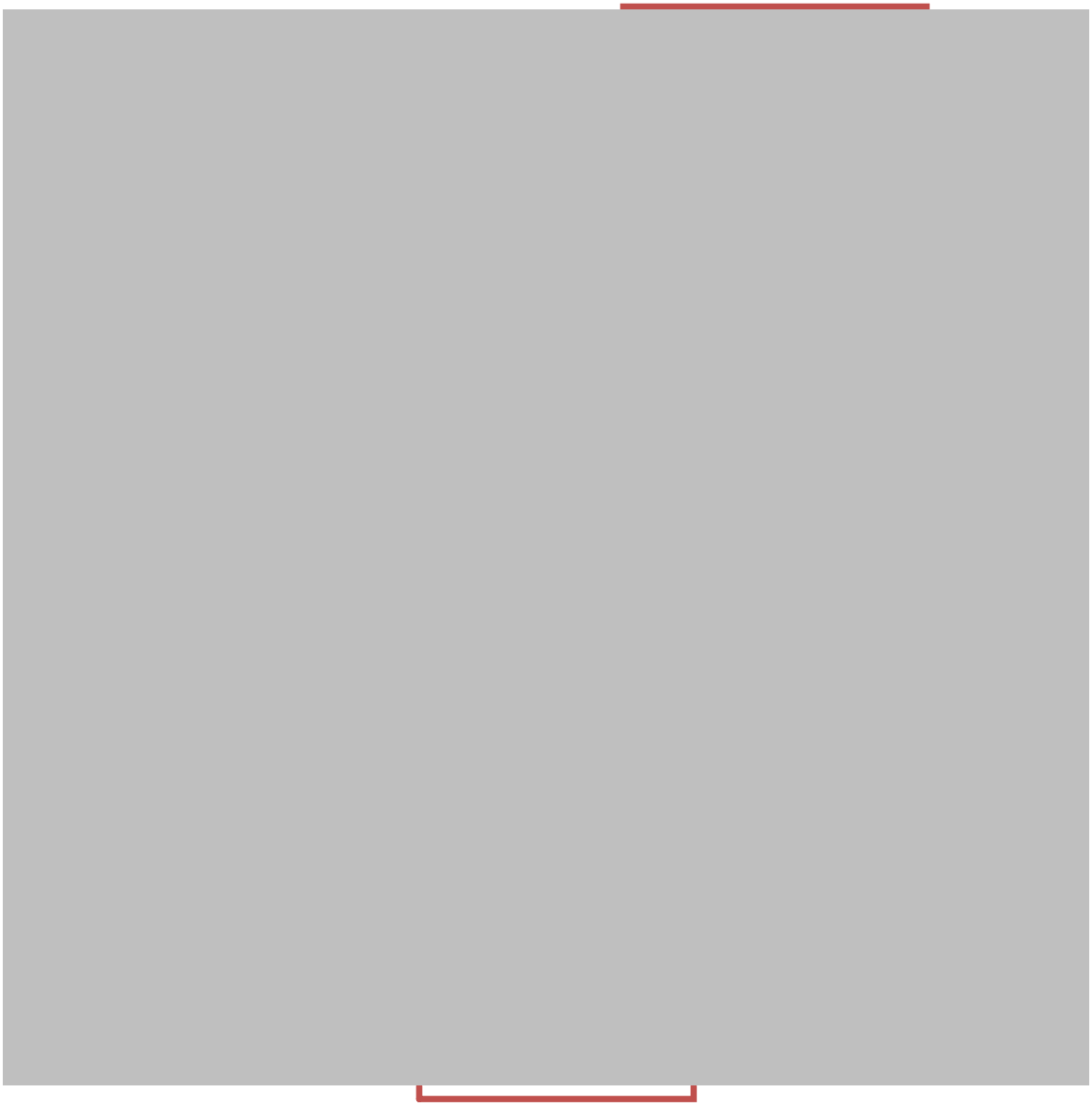


Figure 6-7 An example of the 2010s university job advertisements

Looking at these examples, there are three major points to be made in relation to the differences between 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements. First, while the 2010s university job advertisement has a logo, the 1970s university job advertisement does not. Second, the 2010s university job advertisements use various typographical features – bold, capital, italic and large typefaces – to highlight many types of information, namely, job title, university's name, salary, reference numbers, closing date and *Move 6 Soliciting a response*. The 1970s university job advertisement, on the other hand, only uses capitals, bold and large

typefaces to highlight the university's name and the job title. The position of information is also crucial as it relates to prominence. In the 2010s university job advertisement, for instance, the salary is placed below the university's name, making it prominent, while in the 1970s job advertisement this is a very rare practice. The final point is the embedded genre within university job advertisements. In the 2010s university job advertisement, there is a link to "employer profile", whereas in the 1970s university job advertisement, this is not possible because it is a job advertisement in a printed newspaper.

It is important to also look at typical 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements to see the similarities and differences. A typical example from each data set is presented below to illustrate how advertisers highlight certain information:

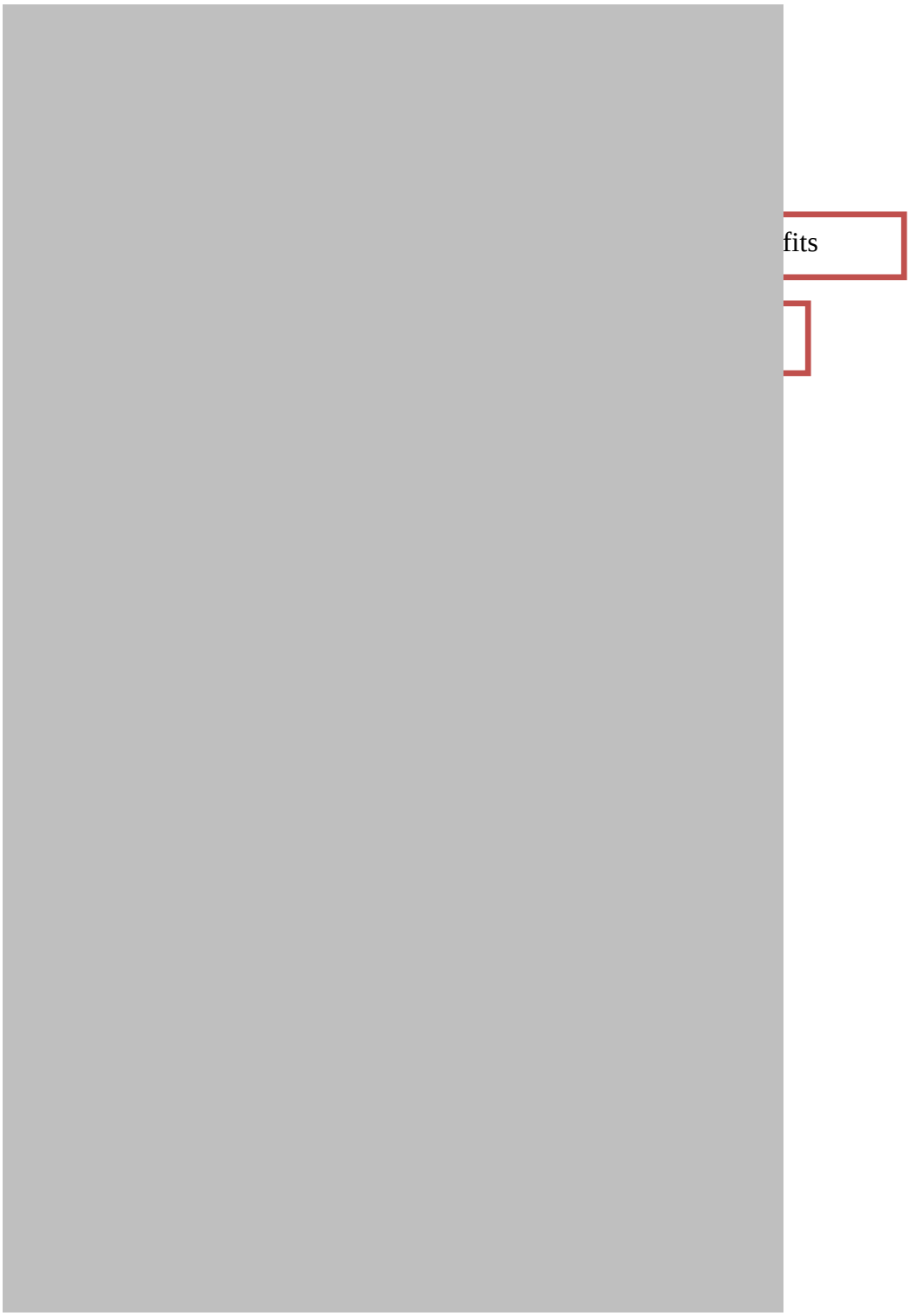


Figure 6-8 An example of the 1970s financial job advertisements

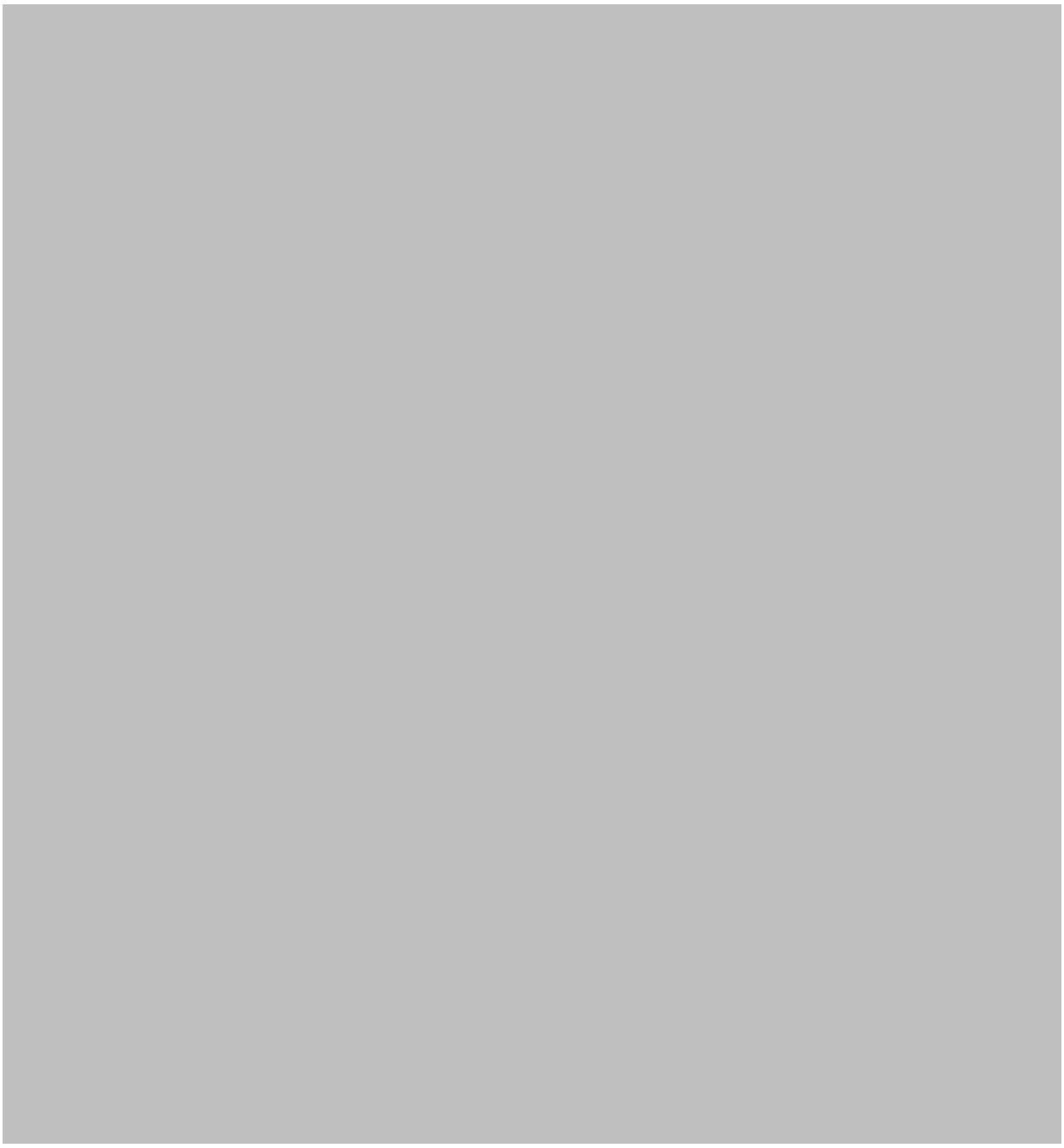


Figure 6-9 An example of the 2010 financial job advertisements

In Figure 6-8, which is a 1970s financial job advertisement, there are various types of information that are in a larger type size and/or bold. The topmost is the job title which uses the largest type size. Underneath the job title are the location (Move 3 Step 2) ‘London-based’ and salary (Move 5 Step 1) ‘C. £3,750’. At the bottom there is a company logo which is in a

large type size and the background is black. This is in contrast to the body of the job advertisement which is in white.

In Figure 6-9, the 2010 business job advertisement has a different format. The logo is in the top-right corner of the screen because this is the format of the website on which the advertisements appears. The advertisement uses a variety of typefaces to emphasize different kinds of information. The job title is in the topmost area with a big, orange typeface. Under the job title is a position summary in which company's name, location, salary, contract type, date of input and reference number are in a normal typeface but the headers are in grey, which may have the effect that these details are emphasized. After that there are four tabs which are part of the website's format. Further down is a secondary headline which is in bold. In this secondary headline, the job title, location, salary and statements that seem to realize *Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search* as in 'Global investment bank is currently searching for a strong regulatory control VP […]' and *Move 3 Step 1 Detailing the job* in the second sentence 'The purpose of this role will be to […]'

It is apparent that the 2010s business job advertisement contains more resources to emphasize more types of information. Furthermore, there is more standardization in the 2010s job advertisement because some information such as location and salary is required as part of the format of job advertisements on this website. However, both 1970s and 2010s advertisements contain promotional information – salary – as prominent information and a logo too.

Comparing these two financial job advertisements to the university job advertisement, some emergent trends can be identified. First is the use of a logo, and in some of the advertisements there is a strap line attached to the logo as well. The second trend is the

saliency of certain information such as salary which is identified in the financial job advertisements and the 2010s university job advertisements. In the section that follows, I investigate these trends via a comparison of 1970s and 2010s university and financial job advertisements. In Section 6.3.1, I investigated the use of logos and strap lines in job advertisements. In section 6.3.2, I compared the information that is highlighted in university and financial job advertisements in the 1970s and 2010s.

6.3.1 Logos and strap lines

This section discusses the use of logos and strap lines in university and financial job advertisements and their association with the transfer of market ideology into academic discourse practice. As noted by Melewar & Akel (2005), the development of logos and slogans/strap lines is part of corporate visual identity programmes, an activity associated with marketing the activities of business organizations. The presence of a logo and/or a strap line is therefore an indicator of business practice entering university discourse.

Figure 6-10, below, shows the numbers of job advertisements in each data set that have a logo.

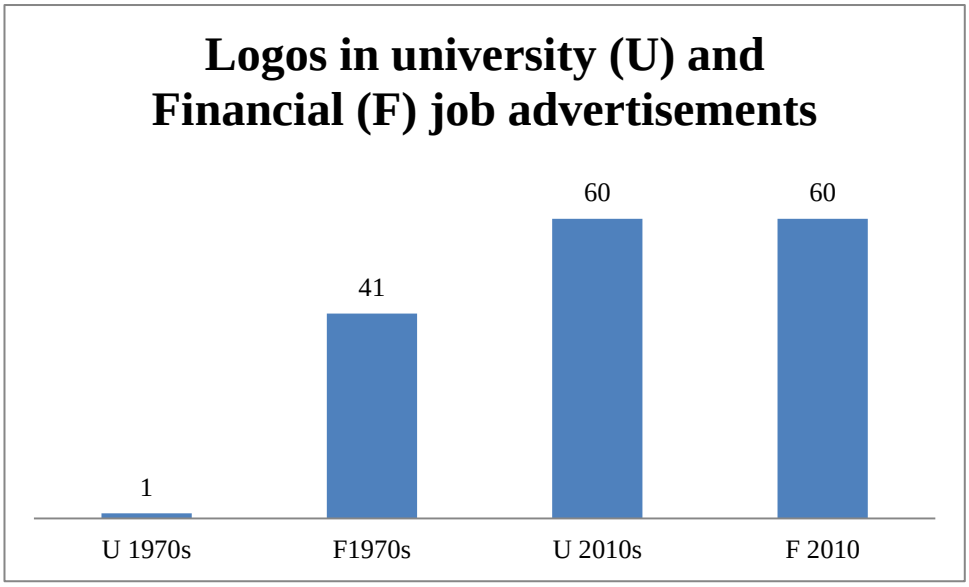


Figure 6-10 Frequency of logos across four data sets

From the figure, it can be seen that the 2010s university job advertisements converge with the practice of financial job advertisements. In the 1970s the majority of financial job advertisements (41) contained a company logo and the number increased to 60 in the 2010s which means all job advertisements in the 2010 have one. This suggests that a logo as an instantiation of marketing discourse was already an established practice in the business job advertisement genre in the 1970s and has remained so. In the 1970s, only one university job advertisement contained a logo, thereby indicating that the practice of placing a logo in job advertisements was not a conventional practice within the university job advertisement genre. But in the 2010s, all the university job advertisements contain a logo, just like the financial job advertisements. This comparison supports the hypothesis that university job advertisements have become more similar to financial job advertisements.

In terms of the position of the logo, in the 2010s data, all the university job advertisements have a logo in the headline, whereas the financial job advertisements do not have a logo in the headline but in the top-right corner of the screen (see Figure 6-9). In the

1970s financial job advertisements, the logo seems to be either at the bottom of the advertisements and to function as a signature line or at the top of advertisements. However, the former is a more common practice. In the 1970s data, university job advertisements only have the university name at the top and do not have a logo. Even though they do not have a logo in them, 1970s university job advertisements always place the university's name at the top, in the largest typeface, thus emphasizing the institutional identity.

The different placement of logos in university and financial job advertisements indicates an adaptation of business practice before importing it to university discourse practice. While the financial job advertisements emphasize jobs, the university job advertisements emphasize institutional identity. In the 1970s, the university names represent the institution. In the 2010s, the university name still appears in the job advertisements but it is supplemented by a logo, thus conveying the sense of a commercialized institution. Relevant to the import and adaptation of market ideology in job advertisements is Fairclough's (2010: 181) notion of 'recontextualization'. This refers to the way in which one type of institution transfers a practice to other types of institution, makes some changes to that practice and adopts that transformed practice. Here the logo, as a business practice, is placed in the headline where the university name would appear in traditional university job advertisements, suggesting a transference and modification of business ideology before importing it into academic discourse. Such a recontextualization process shows the blurring boundary between educational institutions and business organizations. That is, universities have become more like business organizations.

In terms of job advertisements that have a strap line, frequency information is displayed in the graph below.

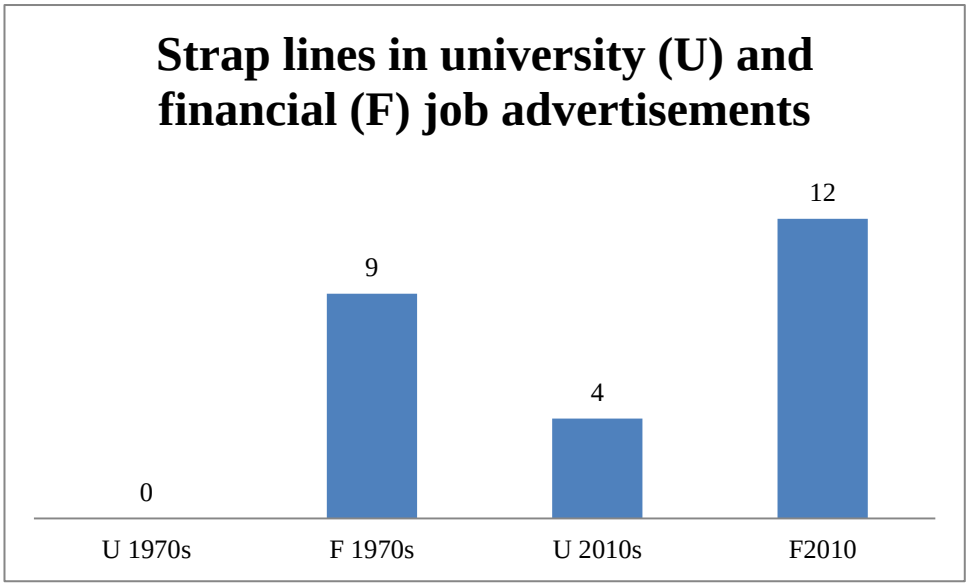


Figure 6-11 Frequency of strap lines across four data sets

These frequencies suggest that the use of a strap line has become more established in financial job advertisements since the 1970s. The number of job advertisements with a strap line in financial job advertisements was 9 in 1970s and this slightly increased to 12 in the 2010. In the university job advertisements, in contrast, strap lines were simply non-existent in the 1970s. In the 2010s university job advertisements, however, four job advertisements contain a strap line. Even though there is still a large discrepancy between the numbers of university and financial job advertisements that contain a strap line, the trend towards convergence is noticeable.

Regarding the position of the strap line, in financial job advertisements in the 1970s, strap lines may appear at the top of advertisements or they may be attached to the company's logo at the signature line. In 2010 financial job advertisements, the strap line is attached to the logos of 12 job advertisements. Four of the 2010s university job advertisements also have a strap line – one in the headline, two by the logo and one in the signature line. It seems that some job advertisements adopt the practice of 2010 financial job advertisements with a strap

line attached to the logo. Some university job advertisements follow the practice of 1970s job advertisements by placing a strap line in the headline or the signature line. Examples are shown below. The first one is a strap line from a University of Hull job advertisement which says 'Building on our achievement'. Example 46 shows the strap line attached to a logo. Example 47 shows the logo of a business organization, Morgan Stanley, which comes with the strap line 'World Wise'.

Ex.45 Research Associate

University of Hull – Logistics Institute, Hull University Business School and Department of Geography

(12 Months Fixed Term)

Building on our achievement *(U2010s 1/13)*

Ex.46

(U2010s 21)

Ex.47

(F 2010 1665)

Ex.48 VALUING EXCELLENCE; SUSTAINING INVESTMENT (U2010s 440)

Looking at the strap lines themselves, the strap lines from example 46 and the one below seem to indicate the commercial orientation of university identity. The word

‘enterprise’ in example 46 and the word ‘investment’ in example 48 above seem to indicate business ideology entering academic discourse. Relevant to this are Slaughter & Leslie's (1997) notion of ‘academic capitalism’ and Mautner’s (2005) research on the discursive profile of ‘entrepreneurial university’. Academic capitalism is concerned with the changing nature of universities, from teaching and research towards increasing focus on profit-making, commercializing research findings and mobilizing funds from external sources. The discourse surrounding the phrase ‘entrepreneurial university’ is loaded with business ideology, although in Mautner’s work there seems to be an effort by senior managers in universities to suppress the negative connotations and instead emphasize innovation and relevance to society. Here in the first strap line, the words ‘innovation’ and ‘enterprise’ both appear and are indicative of the entrepreneurialism ideology that Mautner’s work has argued. The phrase ‘sustaining investment’ in example 5 also indicates the business aspect of universities which is about financing, while the first part, ‘valuing excellence’, seems vaguely relevant to academic excellence. In consequence, the words ‘enterprise’ and ‘investment’, which come from the business domain, in each strap line indicate the presence of a business ideology that co-exists with academic values, as shown in the words ‘knowledge’ and ‘excellence’. The fact that these words are in a strap line shows that these two universities propel this business-laden image to the public and therefore they themselves subscribe to business ideology.

6.3.2 Information saliency

This section discusses information that is made salient in job advertisements. Saliency here refers to the use of typographical features – capitals, bold, italics, a large type size – and the placement of this information at the top of job advertisements which serves a highlighting function. In fact, to borrow Van Dijk’s term, making information salient can be conceived of

as a form of "discourse-based mental influence" (Van Dijk, 2006: 365), manipulating the cognitive processing of a text. According to Van Dijk, this can be done via:

> […] printing part of the text in a salient position (e.g. on top) and in larger bold fonts; these devices will attract more attention and hence will be processed with extra time or memory resources […] thus contributing to more detailed processing and to better representation and recall (Van Dijk, 2006: 365)

Highlighting certain information can be employed for promotional purposes. If that is the case, it follows that the frequency of such a strategy may indicate the commercially-oriented characteristics of job advertisements. In consequence, it is crucial to investigate how advertisers attract the attention of readers to certain types of information. Given the typical example shown above, it is also hypothesized that there will be increasing numbers of instances of highlighted promotional feature in university job advertisements which resemble either the 1970s or 2010 financial job advertisements.

First, I compare this feature in the 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements. After that, I investigate whether the 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements share other similar features. Table 6-3 shows salient information in 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements.

Prominent information	U1970s	U 2010s
Move 2 Step 1 Job title	45	60
Move 3 Step 2 University's name/city	59/1	60/6
Supervisor	0	2
the project	0	8
Contract	0	24
Reference number	6	39
Requirements	0	8
Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration	2	45
Documentation	2	7
Closing date	6	54
Interview date	0	17
start date	0	4
Further contact	6	13
Move 6 Soliciting response	4	10
Move 7 Legal issues	0	18
Others	0	1

Table 6-3 Information saliency in university job advertisements

From the table, it is apparent that more types of information are highlighted in the 2010s university job advertisements, namely, interview date, documentation, supervisor, requirements, the project, start date, contract and *Move 7 Legal issues*. The information that is emphasized in both 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements is job title (Move 2 Step 1), university's name/city (Move 3 Step 2), closing date, *Move 6 Soliciting a response*, reference number, further contact and salary. Nonetheless, there are more 2010s job advertisements that emphasize these types of information. Also, it should be noted that while the majority of the 1970s university job advertisements emphasize the job title and the university's name, all of the 2010s university job advertisements emphasize these two elements, indicating a high degree of standardization of university job advertisements in the 2010s.

The types of information that are made salient can be categorized into two groups: 1) useful information relating to details of the job and the application procedure and 2) promotional element, i.e. salary (Move 5 Step 1 within the move coding framework). There

are 16 categories of useful information and only one of promotional information. Consequently, the information that is made salient belongs to the category of useful information.

It is important to see how salient information is placed in university job advertisements. There are two noticeable trends in the placement of this salient information in university job advertisements. The first trend is best illustrated by examples 49, 50, 51 and 52, below. It should be noted that in this section I do not italicize the excerpts because I want to maintain the format as they appear in the job advertisements. As such, capitals, a bold typeface or italicized fonts are in accordance with the original formatting of the data.

Ex.49 **KENT**

THE UNIVERSITY

Canterbury

CENTRE FOR RESEARCH IN THE

SOCIAL SCIENCES

RESEARCH FELLOW AND

RESEARCH ASSOCIATE (U1973 06)

Ex.50 **WARWICK**

THE UNIVERSITY

READERSHIP AND

LECTURESHIP IN STATISTICS (U1972 15)

Ex.51 **Research Associate**

Comparative Planetary Magnetospheres

University of Leicester – Department of Physics and Astronomy

Refno: SEN00207

Location: Leicester (U2010s 2/29)

Ex.52 **Chair**

Molecular Biophysics

University of York – Department of biology (U2010s 2/16)

Here, the 1970s university job advertisements place the university's name above the job title, whereas the 2010s university job advertisements place the job title above the university name. The first two examples, which are 1970s university job advertisements, start with the university's name which is capitalized and in the biggest type size in the advertisement. In the first example, the location is further specified as 'Canterbury'. Under the university name is the job title. The latter two, which are 2010s university job advertisements, start with the job titles and then the university name, and in the third example the city. Here the job title precedes the location/ organization and thus become more like financial job advertisements in which the job title is the most prominent part and almost always precedes the location/ organization if it is provided at all.

Another interesting trend is the increase in the number of university job advertisements that contain *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration* which is made salient or is in a salient position. This is indicative of the increasingly promotional character of university job advertisements. As

will be shown below, in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements, there are several job advertisements that contain *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration*. This phenomenon illustrates that university job advertisements are becoming like business discourse which places salary in a prominent part of job advertisements. There are 45 university job advertisements in the 2010s in which *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration* clusters in the headline, as shown below:

Ex.53 **Chair in Hydrogen and Fuel Cell Engineering**

University of Birmingham – School of Chemical Engineering

Competitive package for an outstanding candidate

(U2010s 1/7)

Ex.54 **Lecturer in Accounting**

Accounting & Finance Division

University of Stirling – Stiring Management School

£29,853-£43,840 p.a. (U2010s 1/5)

Ex.55 **Database Administrator**

University of Oxford – Hythe Bridge Street

Hythe Bridge Street, Oxford

Grade 8: £36,862 - £44,016 p.a. (U2010s 2/21)

The examples show that in terms of move structures, headlines start with the job title. This is followed by the university name and the remuneration. The way in which remuneration is phrased varies in terms of its promotional tone. In example 10, the salary and perhaps other

benefits are framed as a '**competitive** package', which is highly evaluative. In the second example, a number indicating the salary is provided under the institution which resembles the practice of financial job advertisements (see Figure 6-8 in which the salary follows the organization). The last example includes the words 'Grade 8', a salary scale. The financial job advertisements in my data often provide a salary figure in the same way that the second example does.

There is also one 2010s university job advertisement which emphasizes a sentence that calls for the reader's attention. This is shown below:

Ex.56 **Looking for a new challenge?** The role of Experimental Medicine Business Manager may just be what you have been searching for. (U 2010s 4)

The sentence, in bold, is an interrogative and truncated sentence with an elliptical element 'Are you'. The latter property is called 'prosiopesis' (Jesperson, 1924 cited in Leech, 1966: 79). Leech (ibid.) notes that this feature is common in impromptu speech and fictional dialogues. He states that truncated yes/no questions in advertising discourse are preferred to full sentential form and that this linguistic feature "is an indication of a tendency to go beyond colloquialism in simulating the conditions of friendly, personal communication" (Leech, 1966: 79). This use of the interrogative form in advertising, according to Leech (ibid.), stimulates a mostly positive response from audiences and at the same time is an attempt by the advertiser to create a rapport with customers. Given that this strategy is prevalently used in advertising discourse to urge a response from audiences, but in a friendly and personal manner, it can be considered a sales technique that advertisers use to sell their products. In the case of job advertisements, this may indicate that the job itself is the commodity to be sold.

There is only one 2010s university job advertisement that makes this feature prominent though the use of prosiopesis yes/no interrogatives also appears in other university job advertisements without being put in bold. This linguistic feature indicates the promotional nature of university job advertisements, resembling some financial job advertisements that employ this linguistic strategy.

Having shown prominent information in university job advertisements, the next step is to compare the findings to those of financial job advertisements. Table 6-4 illustrates the types of information that are highlighted in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements. Before moving on to the frequency information, the labelling of some categories may need further elaboration. The realization of Move 2 Step 1 can be just a job title or a sentence introducing a vacancy. In the majority of cases it is a job title with only five job advertisements in 1970s and four in 2010s having a sentence to introduce the vacancy. Regarding *Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location,* this can be realized by indicating the city as the work location or showing the company's name. Logos are not considered in this move. In the 1970s, company names were embedded in logos so these are not counted. In the 2010s data, on the other hand, it is the format of the website that requires the company's name and location. It should be noted that sometimes the move structure is highlighted as a whole but in some cases only part of it is highlighted. An example is the category *further contact* and *Move 6 Soliciting a response*. When only the address or telephone number is emphasized, it is considered *further contact*. When the whole statement including solicitation, such as 'To apply to this position, please […]' is also emphasized, it is considered Move 6.

Move/Information	F1970s	F2010
Move 1 Step 1 Establishing credentials	14	38
Move 2 Step 1 Job titles/introducing vacancy	45 (5)	60 (4)
Move 2 Step 3 Announcing search	2	20
Move 2 Step 4 Offering job	4	16
Move 3 Step 1 Duty	2	9
Move 3 Step 2 Location/company's name	18	60 (60)
Move 3 Step 3 Position significance	0	1
Move 3 Step 4 Contract	0	60
Reference number	1	60
Move 4 Stating requirements	2	8
Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration	34	60
Move 5 Step 2 Professional developments	7	1
Move 5 Step 3 Work environment	1	2
Move 6 Soliciting response	12	2
Further contact	14	1
specialization	0	4
Move 7 Legal issues	0	1

Table 6-4 Information saliency in financial job advertisements

There is both useful information and promotional information that is emphasized in both 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements. Useful information consists of the following categories:

- Move 2 Step 1 Job title/introducing a vacancy
- Move 3 Step 1 Duty
- Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location/company name
- Reference number
- Move 4 Stating requirements
- Further contact
- Specialization

- Move 7 Step 1 Equal opportunity

Promotional information comprises the following categories:

- Move 1 Step 1 Establishing credentials
- Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
- Move 2 Step 4 Offering the job
- Move 3 Step 3 Position's significance
- Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
- Move 5 Step 2 Professional development
- Move 5 Step 3 Work environment
- Move 6 Soliciting a response

It should be noted that Move 6 is a borderline case, being either promotional or useful information. This depends on the way it is linguistically instantiated. In university job advertisements data, it is considered useful information because the way this move is phrased is informational. In financial job advertisements, it can be informational or persuasive as shown in example 57 below. Here, due to the word 'ASAP', this move urges the reader to respond quickly, without hesitation. As such, this move is not only informing how to apply but also encouraging the reader to take action promptly.

Ex.57 ***Please send an up to date CV to*** shane.ahmed@njfsearch.com ***ASAP****. (F2010 2576)*

Overall, in the 2010s, there are more financial job advertisements that emphasize useful and promotional information in almost every category except *further contact*, *Move 5 Step 2 Professional development* and *Move 6 Soliciting a response*. This increase is partly attributable to the standardized format of the website which requires certain information, namely, job title, location, company's name, contract, reference number and salary. The dramatic rise in financial job advertisements that use *Move 1 Step 1 Establishing credentials* (14 in 1970s vs 38 in 2010s), *Move 2 Step 3 Announcing search* (2 in 1970s vs 20 in 2010s) and *Move 2 Step 4 Offering jobs* (2 in 1970s vs 9 in 2010s) can be explained by the existence of secondary headlines. This allows more space for the advertiser to foreground a promotional message about the company or the job. The sharp decline in *Move 6 Soliciting a response* (12 in 1970s vs 2 in 2010s) and *further contact* (14 in 2010s vs 1 in 2010s) might result from the inclusion of 'APPLY NOW' in the 2010s job advertisements which will directly link the reader to an application page. With this tab, the advertiser does not need to place much emphasis on details about the application or contact person.

The emphasis on Move 1 as a strategic self-promotional strategy seems to be characteristic of financial job advertisements. This practice was identified in 1970s business job advertisement headlines and in 2010s business job advertisement secondary headlines. Placing this move in the (secondary) headline, which is a prominent position, serves to highlight the organizational image. Sometimes the secondary headline of 2010 financial job advertisements is repeated in the body copy, as in the example below:

Ex.58 **Our client is a well-respected Investment Bank and is building a DCM franchise in London to cover the EMA area across Corporate, Financial Institutions and SSAs.**

Our client is a well-respected Investment Bank and is building a DCM franchise in London to cover the EMA area across Corporate, Financial Institutions and SSAs.[…]
(F2010 1516)

In financial job advertisements, there is a variety of move clustering, mainly the promotional move 1, and 5 examples are provided below:

Ex.59 Personal Assistant

To Chairman

Circa £ 3,500 London (F1970s 08)

Ex.60

This rapidly expanding company offers tremendous scope for personal growth in both experience and financial terms

COMPANY SOLICITOR

Surrey £4,000 - £6000

NEW FINANCE BANKING COMPANY – SUBSIDIARY OF MAJOR INVESTMENT GROUP (OVER £200 MILLION ASSETS) (F1972 13)

Ex.61

Associate Director – Non – Traded Market Risk – Investment Bank – Circa £70k – London (F2010 0001)

Ex. 62

Financial controller within a leading hedge fund management company. The firm has been hugely successful in it [sic] previous years and is one of Europe's most successful hedge fund managers. An excellent opportunity for a qualified, experienced accountant to take the next step in their career. (F2010 0988)

The first two examples are from 1970s financial job data while the latter two are 2010 financial job advertisements. There are several moves clustering together in these examples. In examples 59 and 61 there are *Move 2 Step 1 Introducing a job vacancy* which refers to the job title, *Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location* and *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration*. In example 60 the headline starts with an embedded *Move 1 Step 1 Establishing credentials* 'This **rapidly expanding** company' and *Move 5 Step 2 Professional development* which can be seen in the phrase 'tremendous scope for **personal growth** in both experience and financial terms'. Then there is a job title, which is *Move 2 Step 1 Introducing a job vacancy*. The next line starts with

Move 3 Step 2 Specifying work location, 'Surrey', and *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration* '£4,000-£6000'. The final line is *Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements* as the company proclaims itself to be a 'subsidiary of **major** investment group (over **£200 million assets**)'. Example 62 is a secondary headline. It starts with Move 2 Step 1 'Financial Controller' with an embedded Move 1 Step 1 'a **leading** hedge fund management company'. This is followed by Move 1 Step 1 in its full sentence form, claiming that the company 'has been **hugely successful**' and 'is one of Europe's **most successful** hedge fund managers'. The last sentence is *Move 5 Step 2 Professional development,* as it urges the reader to '**take a next step** in their career'.

In relation to university job advertisements, it should be noted that the clustering of Move 1 and Move 2 also occurs in 2010s university job advertisements; however, they are not emphasized. Examples are provided below:

Ex.63

The University of Edinburgh **/move 2/**, home to one of the leading Psychology Departments in the UK **/move1/**, **seeks** to appoint 3 permanent, full time lecturers in Psychology **/move 2/**[…] (U 2010s 2/3) (My emphasis)

Ex.64

The Department of Architecture and Built Environment has an international reputation for its teaching and research alongside worldwide collaborations with leading institutions, industry and the professions. […] **/move 1/.** This is an exciting **opportunity** to play a key part in future development **/move 2/** as it seeks to further strengthen its position as a leading international centre of architecture and building services teaching, learning and research **/move 1/.** (U2010s 2/8) (My emphasis)

The first example is an instance of *Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search* as the university frames the recruitment as an active search with the word 'seeks'. Within this move, there is an embedded *Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements* as in 'home to one of the leading Psychology Departments in the UK', which is an apposition of 'The University of Edinburgh'. In the second example, a lot of space is allocated to *Move 1 Step 1*

Announcing the organization's achievements from the beginning, and then followed by *Move 2 Step 4 Offering the job* in which the advertisement phrases the recruitment process as an 'opportunity'. Within the same sentence is *Move 1 Step 2 Publicizing the organization's mission and policy* where the advertisement states the vision or goal of the university, which is to '[…] further strengthen its position as a leading international centre of architecture […]'. Underlying this move clustering seems to be argumentation that the organization is influential and has a lot to offer, so potential applicants should apply. There are nine 2010s university job advertisements that use the clustering of Move 1 and Move 2. Consequently, regarding the clustering of Move 1, university job advertisements also employ persuasive language, like financial job advertisements, but do not use typographical features to further the saliency of the promotional message.

In addition, financial job advertisements use a variety of steps in Move 2 and sometimes these occur in clusters. Examples are provided below:

Ex.65 Chartered Accountant
Merchant Banking offers
You a progressive career (F1971 08)

Ex.66 Our Client, Prestigious Organization Operating Within Financial Markets, are seeking highly dynamic sales people and Account Managers to join their expanding teams (F2010 0105)

Ex.67 My client is a leading provider of wealth management services to private clients and SME's [sic], they currently have an excellent opportunity for a head of new media to join them. (F2010 1614)

Example 65 is a cluster of *Move 2 Step 1 Introducing a job vacancy*, which is the job title, and *Step 4 Offering the job*, which is indicated by the phrase '**offer** you a progressive career'. In fact, this phrase is also very close to *Move 5 Step 2 Professional development* due to the words '**progressive** career', which implies an opportunity for development. However,

since ‘offer’ is more explicit, I coded it as Move 2 Step 4. Example 66 is *Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search,* as shown by the word ‘seeking’, but *Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization’s achievements* is embedded as an appositive ‘Prestigious Organization Operating Within Financial Markets’. The last example is a cluster of *Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization’s achievements*, which is indicated by the phrase ‘a **leading** provider of wealth management services’, and *Move 2 Step 4 Offering the job,* as shown by the phrase ‘an **excellent opportunity** for a head of new media to join them’. This move clustering frames a job as beneficial to applicants and, due to the presence of Move 1 Step 1, these benefits are framed as being offered by a great organization. The jobs therefore represent a fantastic opportunity that the applicants must seize.

There is also a clustering of Move 5 and Move 6 which occurs only once in the 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements. Despite the fact that this pattern is marginal, it is a clear illustration of a hard sales technique used in job advertisements. The job advertisement excerpt with this move clustering is provided below:

Ex.68

If you want

The opportunity to earn £3-5,000

Or even more (minimum basic pensionable

Salary of £2,000 plus generous commission)

Non-contributory pension

Company car house purchase scheme

Assistance with relocation expenses

Other attractive fringe benefits

We would like to hear from you. Please write to Mr P.J. Sharman, Life Staffing Manager, Royal Insurance, 1 North John Street, Liverpool L69 2AS. (F1973 10)

Ex.69

We can offer you an exciting, fast-paced working environment, culture of mutual respect and teamwork and the opportunity to play a vital role in our growth.

If you are interested in this role – please submit an updated copy of your CV. (F2010 0455)

In example 68, *Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration* starts with 'If you want' to 'other attractive benefits' and *Move 6 Soliciting response* is the rest. These moves are clustered in the same sentence. As noted by Leech (1966), an if-clause in an advertisement genre often presupposes a positive answer. Given the salary and benefits are put in an if-clause, this job advertisement seems to attract potential applicants with money, which is a hard sales technique. In example 69, *Move 5 Step 3 Facilities and work environment* is in the first paragraph, while *Move 6 Soliciting a response* is in the second. Since they seem to be further away, unlike the first example, this job advertisement seems less aggressive. Nonetheless, as these two moves are emphasized and are in close proximity, the rhetorical effect of the hard sales technique may remain.

Apparently, these examples illustrate the creativity, strategic deployment and emphasis of different moves in financial job advertisements. There are Move 1 which serves to sell the organization and Move 5 which sells the job to the potential applicants. The clustering of all these moves indicates the persuasiveness of financial job advertisements, both in the 1970s and the 2010s. The higher frequency of Move 1 in 2010 financial job advertisements also shows that these seem to favour self-promotion more than selling the job with its salary. This change might also be attributable to the presence of a position summary section which already states the salary of each job. As Bhatia (2005: 213) has noted, it might well be the case that the financial businesses have 'turned advertising into a subtle art form rather than traditional hard selling'. In consequence, instead of persuading the applicants with remuneration, which would

probably resemble hard selling, the advertisements use more implicit persuasion by advertising the image of the company. It should be borne in mind that university job advertisements also use Move 1, clustering, strategically but without emphasis via typographical features. Move 5 starts to receive prominence in the 2010s university job advertisements, thereby indicating an increasingly promotional feature of universities' discursive practices.

6.4 EMPLOYER PROFILE AND EMPLOYER VIDEO

This section introduces two genres that are embedded within university job advertisements – employer profile and employer video. These two genres are a new development in recruitment discourse and do not yet seem to be established in university job advertisements online, because only ten universities have an employer profile and merely three have an employer video embedded within job advertisements. When the data were collected, there were no equivalents of these genres in the financial job advertisements. As a result, no comparison can be made between the two data sets. However, while these genres are not prima facie promotional, they appear to indicate the increasingly commercialized nature of universities' recruitment discourse, rendering them deserving of further discussion. The jobs.ac.uk website advertises the inclusion of employer videos as follows:

- **Engages jobseekers** viewing your adverts with an informative video
- **Promotes your organisation, the opportunities offered and the benefits** more powerfully than text or images
- **Enhances and promotes your employer brand** and values to millions of jobseekers (Jobs.ac.uk, 2012) (emphasis in original)

From this account together with the investigation into these genres, this thesis will argue that employer profiles and employer videos aim to sell the organization and, in so doing, are an embodiment of market ideology which is adapted into the context of higher education institutions. Both of them perform two main functions: 1) presenting a desirable image of each university and 2) advertising what applicants can expect in return for joining the university. Their goals are to construct an attractive identity for each university in the audience's mind and urge them to take action. The image-building aspect of these genres is related to corporate advertising which is a soft sales technique. The offers to potential applicants are direct persuasion via incentives which resemble hard sales technique. Despite the shared goals of employer profiles and employer videos, they appear via complementary distribution, i.e. university job advertisements only have one of them, not both. Furthermore, they represent different voices. The employer profile portrays the university from the point of view of an institution communicating to an audience. The employer videos, on the other hand, are interviews with university employees and thus present the university from the point of view of staff. As an employer video gives the impression of the personal voice of each staff member talking about their experience at the university, they are more compelling and convincing.

In what follows, I provide a description of employer profiles and videos in terms of their formats, topics and multimodal elements.

6.4.1 Employer profile

As the employer profile is an emerging genre, a snapshot of an employer profile webpage is shown below to give a clearer picture of what this genre looks like.

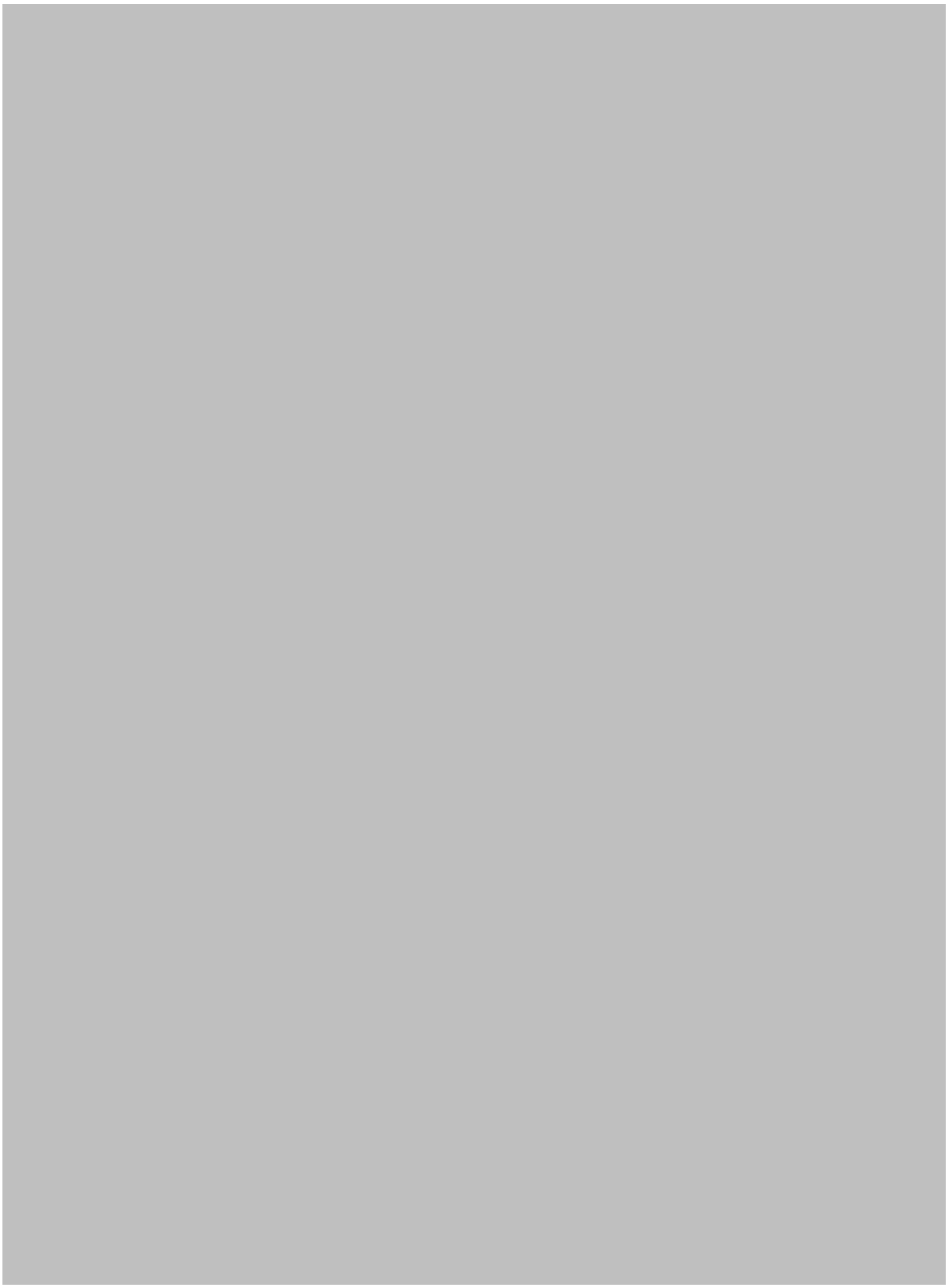


Figure 6-12 University of Exeter employer profile (source: http://www.jobs.ac.uk/enhanced/employer/university-of-exeter/)

The webpage has the university's logo at the top and there are many tabs but the links are broken. There is a photo of the staff with the slogan 'University's vision takes shape' and underneath it is a statement about the University of Exeter. In this statement, many topics are covered. First, there is generic proclamation of the success and achievements of the university based on its ranking. Second, lifestyle and leisure activities are mentioned in the first paragraph, as in 'Devon and Cornwall are great places to live: that's why the world comes here on holiday.' In the third and fourth paragraphs, the university boasts about its financial resources and strength. In the fifth paragraph, it writes about the history of the university. The sixth paragraph is about internationalization and links with other universities. The last paragraph concerns students' experiences and extra-curricular activities.

Having shown an example, I think there are two elements of employer profiles that can be surveyed: topics in statements and images. These are the main semiotic resources used to present the university. Below, I first survey the topics in the employer profile statement. After that, the images in the profile are discussed.

6.4.1.1 Employer profile statements

This section deals with the topics covered in employer profiles. After surveying all the profiles, I identified the topic categories and looked at how many universities contain them. Table 6-5 shows the result of the survey.

Topic/university	Cambridge	Exeter	Essex	UWE	Southampton	Bath	Edinburgh	City	Leicester	Durham	total
Achievements	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	10
Resources		√	√	√					√	√	5
Connection		√		√	√	√				√	5
Lifestyle&tourism		√	√			√				√	4
policy&commitment				√	√				√	√	4
History		√	√							√	3
Students' experience		√		√						√	3
professional development	√				√						2

Table 6-5 Topics for employer profile statements

From Table 6-5, above, it is apparent that common across the board are *achievements*. This can be seen as a general claim of the universities in terms of their position and size, which in turn indicates how influential they are. The universities present the number of students and staff. Information and ratings by external authoritative sources such as the National Student Survey and other awards are exploited to legitimize their claims. Also, universities describe the range of disciplines offered in the universities as well as approaches and techniques. Emphasis is placed on subjects that are famous in that particular university. A discussion of the recognition of research in the university is provided in relation to the ranking conducted by an external authority such as the Research Assessment Exercise.

There are five universities' profiles that elaborate on resources. Generally, universities describe the facilities and the assets they have, how much money they make and how much investment is made in the development of the facilities on campus. Sometimes the facilities are discussed alone, in highly evaluative terms. These elements seem to relate to the economic aspect of universities, pointing out their financial strength and stability. An example from the

University of Exeter shown in Figure 6-12 above is: ‘Despite the current economic pressures on higher education, the University is continuing to expand its staff and facilities’.

Five universities provide information about their connections to other public and private organizations. The University of Bath, for instance, states that it ‘has had close connections with industry and the public and voluntary sectors since its inception in 1966’.

In addition, four employer profiles mention *living and tourism*. Here, universities draw on the association between the city and the university. They present the city in a positive light and the kind of lifestyle that is on offer. They also mention historical places and beautiful landscapes. I believe that this is associated with a marketing strategy, place branding, which is noted by Mighall (2008).

There are four employer profiles that mention *policies and commitment*. These relate to what each university aspires to do or to maintain. Here, they often refer to an inclusivity policy whereby the university embraces people from diverse backgrounds. The degree of commitment varies and an example is the University of West England (UWE) which is committed to making a social contribution and relating learning to real business experience.

History appears in four universities' material. Here, universities present a long history starting from their inception, then their trajectory of development until the present day. The University of Durham also presents alumni who are historical figures, which can be argued to be one way of providing a history of the university based on students. This element seems to indicate the university being unique and well-established. The provision of a university’s history is in fact one of marketing strategies noted by Bulotaite (2003). She argues that it is a way to promote brand loyalty.

Three employer profiles mention students' experiences. This is in relation to support services, a good living environment and extra-curricular activities. The presentation of this information seems to portray the university as a caring institution.

6.4.1.2 Employer profile images

Moving on to the images on each webpage, there are five types of images: 1) campus, 2) tourist destination/ city, 3) staff, 4) students and 5) crest. These photos seem to perform two types of function. First, they construct an image of the university by showing the university (all the photos) or making an association with other entities, as is the case with the tourist destination/ city photos. These photos are thus the face of the university. The second function is constructing an interpersonal relationship with the reader. Here, the staff photos seem to perform this function. Below, I describe how each type of photograph performs these functions.

Five universities have a photo of the campus which shows the facilities, buildings and students. The photos of the campus and its facilities serve to portray a corporate image of the university and show off state-of-the-art facilities. For example, City University includes a photo of an old, red-brick building which portrays history and tradition (see Figure 6-15). The University of West England, on the other hand, shows the image of a river and a green area with a white modern-looking building.

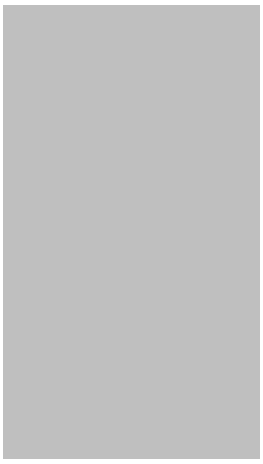


Figure 6-13 A building in the University of Southampton profile page

Figure 6-14 A building in the University of West England profile page

Figure 6-15 An old, red brick building in City University profile page

There are three universities that include a photo of the city or a tourist destination on the employer profile page. These seem to prime the audience to draw an association between famous destinations and the university, while at the same time showing leisure opportunities. The University of Bath webpage contains a photo of the Roman Baths (see Figure 6-16). The

University of Edinburgh uses an image of Our Dynamic Earth, which is a famous amphitheatre and an exhibition centre in Edinburgh (see image in Figure 6-17). The University of Southampton puts an image of the city at night at the top of the page (see Figure 6-18). It is from a high vantage point, making the image look like a picture postcard. These three images indicate traces of interdiscursivity and the presence of tourism discourse and are associated with a place branding strategy (Mighall, 2008) which has been noted in higher-education marketing literature.

Figure 6-16 Images in the University of Bath profile

Figure 6-17 Image of Our Dynamic Earth in the University of Edinburgh profile

Figure 6-18 Image of the city in the University of Southampton profile

The images of staff are shown in two employer profiles. The staff photos represent the university and send a message of welcome from senior colleagues, thereby portraying a

collegial atmosphere. As such, they perform both ideational and interpersonal functions. In the University of Cambridge profile, there is a photo of a well-dressed man, presumably a senior staff member (see Figure 6-19). He is sitting at a desk looking at the viewer with a faint smile. In the University of Exeter profile, there is a photo of three staff members standing in front of a glass building with a modern and creative look (see Figure 6-20). They also seem to be at a senior level, given their demeanour and apparel. They are looking at the viewer with a broad smile. This, in Kress & Van Leeuwen's (2006: 122) terms, is called a "demand" picture. So these are people who interact with the viewer via eye contact and a smile.

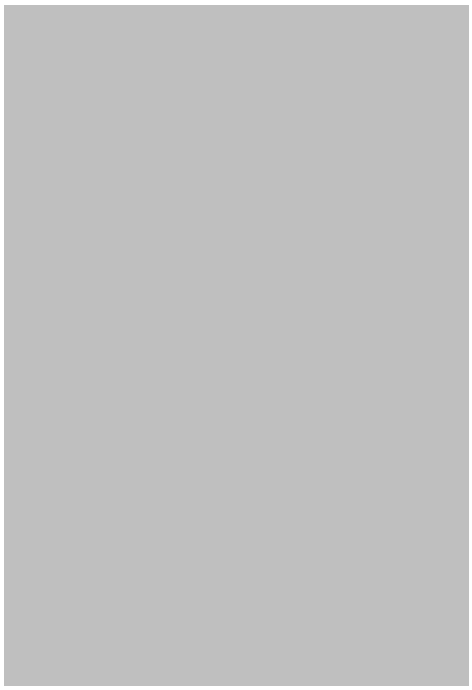


Figure 6-19 Staff photo from the University of Cambridge profile

Figure 6-20 Staff photo from the University of Exeter profile

Students are present in the images of three employer profiles. In contrast to the staff photos, the students in the photos do not look at the viewer so they have no interaction with them. They are objects to be viewed. In Kress and Van Leeuwen's (2006: 122) terms, this is called an "offer" picture. In fact, in most of the photos, students are used as props or part of the settings (see Figure 6-13). However, there is a photo of a female student holding a model of a molecule (see Figure 6-22). In this image, there is no clear setting. Such decontextualization seems to convey a symbolic meaning of this female student rather than presenting her as a real person, having a connotative rather than a denotative meaning (Barthes, 1977) . It might be argued that this image represents students' engagement with scientific discovery. In fact, the student may serve as a metonym for the university, as the university's logo appears on her right. Using a student as metonymy seems to foreground the crucial role of students. i.e. students are part of and represent the university. As such, it creates a message that the university is engaging in scientific discovery.

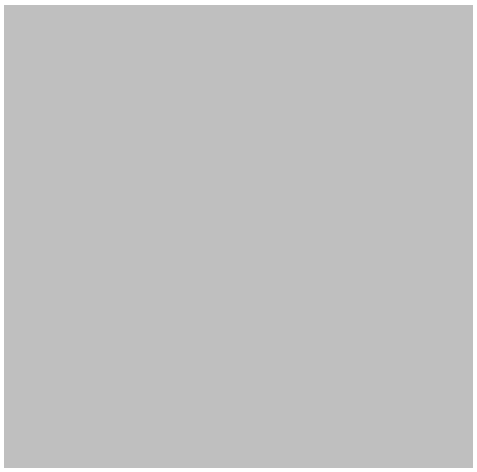


Figure 6-21 Image of student in the University of Essex profile

Figure 6-22 Image of a student in the Unversity of Southampton profile

The final category is that of object, and there is only one object in the employer profile of Durham University – a crest. The crest possibly represents the university in terms of its long history and tradition, as noted by Melewar & Akel (2005).

From the discussion of the employer profiles' statements and images, it is evident that multiple semiotic resources are employed to promote each university. Overall, this genre seems to have a resemblance to the corporate advertising genre, which aims to sell the organization. The contents are related to achievements, policies, resources, connections and an appealing environment. Universities are positioned as academically and financially strong, caring for students and staff, well-established with a long history and international in scale. This genre also sells the job by persuading potential applicants via possible yields, namely, professional development, an enjoyable lifestyle and tourism. There are linguistic features or images which are associated with marketing strategies, such as place branding and other branding strategies as noted in higher-education marketing literature. In summary, from the analysis, the embedding of an employer profile in university job advertisements can be argued to be an instantiation of market ideology and of the promotional and commercialized nature of recruitment discourse.

6.4.2 Employer video

This section describes three employer videos – from the University of Glasgow, the University of Warwick and the University of Nottingham. The first two videos have a transcript while the other one needed to be manually transcribed.

The employer videos share the same purpose as employer profiles. The differences are the more sophisticated use of multimedia and the angle from which the university is presented. Here we see the university from the staff's point of view. In terms of the definition of this genre in the words of the employer video producer's website, employer videos are "Employer Branding Videos that inform and attract." They are:

> [A] 3 minute opportunity to show that your organization offers more than just a job…
>
> • A short video that promotes your organisation's strengths
>
> • An opportunity to overcome perceived weaknesses
>
> • Showcase the best of your institution's facilities, buildings and locations
>
> • Provide insight [sic] into day to day culture and work/life balance
>
> • Targeted at encouraging applicants for difficult-to-fill jobs.
>
> (Jobs.ac.uk, 2012)

From the survey of these employer videos, I found that videos consist of three elements: 1) places, 2) staff at work and 3) staff interviews. The videos show various places inside and outside the universities. Inside the universities, they show teaching, learning and research facilities as well as support and leisure facilities, such as sport facilities, nursery

rooms and prayer rooms. Outside universities are the city, the airport, sport facilities and tourist attractions. In the University of Glasgow video, it seems that old, historical buildings are the focus and are shown repeatedly.

Figure 6-23 Snapshot of an old, historical building at the University of Glasgow

Figure 6-24 The city of Nottingham

Figure 6-25 Tourist destination: Warwick Castle

The second component of the videos is footage of staff at work. There are staff members with many different roles – academics, senior managers, support staff, technicians, etc. Also, staff members are from different nationalities.

Figure 6-26 Staff at work from the University of Nottingham video

Figure 6-27 Staff at work from the University of Warwick video

Figure 6-28 Staff at work from the University of Glasgow video

The final element is the interviews with staff. It should be noted that the interviewer is not seen or heard in any video and only appears once in the Nottingham video. This gives the impression that the video is not an interview genre but staff testimonials and that staff have the

power to control the topic. Only bits and pieces are selected by the producer and interviews with different staff members from different roles and nationalities are put together in alternation, shifting from one staff member to another and back to the same staff members again.

Figure 6-29 Interview with staff at the University of Glasgow

Figure 6-30 Interview with staff at the University of Warwick

Figure 6-31 Interview with staff at the University of Nottingham

The three components – places, staff at work and staff interviews – appear in alternation with footage of facilities and campus sites or sometimes footage of the staff at work appearing in interviews. There is music in the background.

The video of the University of Glasgow starts with a staff member talking about her impressions of the university. Then, staff members take turns talking about how great the university is. After that the city and transportation are mentioned. These are followed by the facilities, colleagues, work and professional development. The university's reputation, colleagues and personal impressions sometimes recur. The video concludes with each staff member saying one word that represents the university, and one staff member, presumably a senior manager, urges viewers to find more information about the job opportunities.

In the University of Warwick video, the staff first introduce themselves. Next, they talk about the students, their colleagues and professional development. After that, they talk about convenient transportation, living, tourism and leisure opportunities. Then they praise the university’s excellence in research and teaching and its dynamic growth. The video concludes with staff members talking about supportive colleagues and a gratifying work atmosphere.

In the University of Nottingham video, the introduction involves each staff member saying one sentence to laud the university in terms of its reputation, work atmosphere, campus and professional development. Then, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor describes the university in terms of its reputation, teaching and research and says that there are many job opportunities. Later on, other staff members talk about friendly colleagues, good facilities and campuses. They also talk about campuses in Malaysia and China. Subsequently, the topic concentrates on tourism and leisure activities as well as transportation. Finally, staff members persuade the

audience that they will have the chance to realize their potential and be part of a great university.

The topics discussed in the videos are summarized and presented in Table 6-6, below:

Topics\university	**Nottingham**	**Warwick**	**Glasgow**
credentials	√	√	√
resources	√	√	√
lifestyle, leisure, tourism	√	√	√
work atmosphere	√	√	√
professional development	√	√	√
transportation	√	√	√
connection	√		
personal impression			√
policy and commitment		√	

Table 6-6 Topics discussed in each video

First, I discuss the topics that appear in all the videos. *Credentials* are associated with magnitude and reputation. In terms of *resources*, the videos emphasize a broad range of quality facilities for academic and living purposes which guarantee quality work and a comfortable life at the university. From the aspect of *lifestyle, leisure and tourism*, the videos cover aspects of life outside the university. The staff extols the city, saying that it is safe, vibrant and has many things to do. In the videos, different staff each mention one tourist attraction or leisure activity. *Work atmosphere* involves three aspects: work, colleagues and students. Generally, the staff say that they are satisfied with their job. There is variety in the job. The colleagues are very friendly, supportive and adept at what they do. Students make the job interesting and positive. Furthermore, staff members talk about various kinds of *professional development*. There are many opportunities to be promoted very quickly. Also, there are several training courses which then develop the capacity of staff. In addition, *transportation* is another convenient aspect of working and living. The city is well-connected

and has an efficient transportation system. The University of Nottingham and the University of Glasgow also emphasize that they are close to an airport, which conveys a sense of global reach.

The topics that appear in only one video are: 1) *connections*, 2) *personal impressions* and 3) *policy and commitment*. The University of Nottingham describes its campus abroad and shows that it has connections with China and Malaysia. The University of Glasgow video shows personal attitudes and emotions towards the university, as in 'I just felt in love with the place.' With respect to policy and commitment, the University of Warwick talks about the vision of the university.

The categories map well with those identified in the employer profiles but there are two new categories, namely, *work atmosphere* and *personal impressions*. This indicates the advantage of a video which presents the university from the staff's point of view. Staff members can talk about their experience of working at the university and express their feelings towards it as well. Use of the pronouns 'I' and 'we' is prevalent in the interviews, creating a personal and interactive touch of video footage. Employer videos are also more efficient when it comes to visualizing campus facilities and city life. The audience can clearly see what kind of lifestyle is on offer.

There is another element which is not considered a topic. The University of Nottingham and the University of Glasgow urge the viewer to take further action. In the University of Nottingham video, senior managers persuade the viewer about the chance to realize their potential and be part of 'one of the most prestigious universities not only in the UK but in the world'. The video ends with a professor recommending working at the university. In the

Glasgow University video, a staff member, presumably in a management position, urges the viewer to visit the website.

The employer videos seem to be a hybrid of various genres. Filming places makes them look like a documentary. Filming staff at work and interviews makes it look like a reality TV show. It seems to be a personal conversation with people who actually works at the university. However, the presence of tourist destinations and linguistic features betrays the sense of informational purpose that the format seems to show. The interviews are in fact highly evaluative and focus on the prestige of the universities, the pleasant working environment and the multitude of benefits that applicants will acquire. There is not much emphasis on actual workload. For example, there is no mention of contact hours, administrative work or the research projects that staff are expected to conduct or staff evaluation processes. The absence of an interviewer seems to give agency to the interviewee who can then self-select topics to talk about. In fact, as mentioned earlier, the absence of the interviewer and the highly evaluative interview texts seem very similar to customer testimonials for a product and testimonials are associated with advertising discourse which is promotional and persuasive. This genre is in consequence very powerful in the sense that it looks like an informational genre but performs a promotional and persuasive function. As such, despite its infrequent occurrence, employer videos exemplify the commercialized nature of universities' recruitment discourse.

6.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the distribution of moves structure, embedded genres and interdiscursivity in job advertisements. From the pattern of moves structure, there is a pattern of convergence in which the 2010s university job advertisements are becoming more like financial job advertisements in the 1970s or 2010. There are, however, other factors

influencing the structure of job advertisements such as legal requirements and website formats. The discursive practices associated with marketing strategy such as logos and strap lines are seen in 2010s university job advertisements while these were established practice in financial job advertisements from the 1970s onwards. The adoption is not direct but has some alterations, as discussed in Section 6.3, which suggests a recontextualization process. The prevalence of promotional features in university job advertisements is not as broad as in financial job advertisements. There are fewer university job advertisements which contain promotional moves. When looking at information saliency it becomes clear that university job advertisements still largely focus on useful information while financial job advertisements accentuate self-promotion. These findings seem to contradict the general argument that academic discourse has become more like business discourse. However, absolute convergence is not a claim of this thesis.

However, with the introduction of employer profiles and employer videos, universities seem to be more innovative than businesses in terms of marketing the organization. These two genres aim to sell the organizations. Multiple semiotic resources are exploited to promote the organization. There is a mixture of various genres – documentary, reality show, tourist brochure, interview and testimonial. On the face of these hybridized genres, they seem to perform an informational role but further investigation unveils their promotional features.

Overall, the 1970s university job advertisements tend to be informative while the 2010s university job advertisements are more persuasive and promotional, sharing many similar features with financial job advertisements. There are traces of a marketing strategy. As such, the analysis seems partly to support Fairclough's (1993) claim that university discourse is converging with business discourse. However, the similarity may not be at the surface linguistic level but at the commercial-orientation level and in the emphasis on selling. After

all, by embedding an employer profile and an employer video universities are more advanced than businesses because these genres do not exist in financial job advertisements. As a result, the investigation of genre status provides insights into the scope (prevalence) of how university recruitment discourse has become a commodity. It also sheds some light on the depth (degree of promotion) of commodification of university recruitment discourse in relation to business organization. This depth can be expanded further via a more detailed linguistics analysis. What is more, questions still remain as to how market ideology is instantiated in the representation of the organization and potential applicants.

CHAPTER 7 DIACHRONIC AND SYNCHRONIC ANALYSIS OF THE REPRESENTATION OF EMPLOYER ORGANIZATION AND APPLICANTS

This chapter centres on a diachronic and synchronic comparison of the ideological representation of employers – universities and business organisations – and applicants. The focus of this chapter is on deconstructing how the identities of organizations and applicants in university and financial job advertisements in the 1970s and 2010s are represented and identifying traces of marketized discourse in university job advertisements. The overarching questions asked about the organizations are: What kinds of actions are they construed as performing? What attributes are given to them? And which linguistic features are differentially selected? It is argued that the representation of employer organizations in university job advertisements increasingly resembles the representation of employer organizations in financial job advertisements. The representation of applicants indicates that advertisements try to persuade potential applicants to apply for the job. Specifically, in university job advertisements, there is increasing emphasis on financial strength, entrepreneurialism and self-promotion.

First, this chapter elaborates on the overarching analytical framework for this section and issues arising during data analysis. After that, I first compare the university job advertisements from the 1970s and 2010s to trace changes in the actions and attributions linked to institutional entities such as universities, departments or research. Next, the actions and attributions of business organisations in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements are compared with each other and the similarities between the process types of universities and

business organisations are discussed. The same procedure is conducted with a focus on the actions and attributions of applicants.

7.1 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK AND ISSUES IN DATA ANALYSIS

Within critical discourse analysis research, the framework that Fairclough and Chouliaraki (1999) advocate is systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This is due to its theoretical congruency with critical discourse analysis. In particular, both strands share the view that language can be represented as a system of choices and that language is multi-functional. In discourse, we communicate experiential meaning about what happens, i.e. interpersonal meaning regarding the relationship between the interlocutors and textual meaning related to the coherence of text. As Fairclough (2003) notes, the linguistic choices that are made to communicate meaning can be ideologically driven. He further argues that systemic functional grammar is an appropriate tool applicable to the deconstruction of how language is used to present any given phenomenon. In what follows, I describe Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) analytical framework for experiential, interpersonal and textual meaning.

In experiential meaning, a clause construes what is happening in terms of who is involved (Participants), what action is done (Process) and the spatio-temporal situation of the event (Circumstances). The grammatical system developed to describe how events are construed in discourse is called Transitivity (ibid.: 170). Halliday and Matthiessen sort experiential events into six kinds of process types based on the domain of experience being construed. These process types are as follows:

1. Material process refers to the experience in the external world, i.e. 'things happen, people or other actors do things or make them happen' (ibid.: 170). An example of

this category is ‘The lion caught the tourist’ (ibid.: 180). Here the material process is ‘caught’. There are two participants. ‘The lion’ performs the action and thus it is the Actor. ‘The tourist’ is the one to whom the action is done and thus the Goal. Apart from Actor and Goal, there are other types of participants, namely, Scope, Recipient, Client and Attribute (for more explanation see Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 190)).

2. Mental process is about what goes on in our mind – a process of sensing. An example of this category is ‘I hate cockroaches more than rats’ (ibid.: 197). Here ‘hate’ is the mental process. ‘I’ is the person who has the feeling and this is termed the Senser. ‘Cockroaches’ are the things being sensed; this is termed the Phenomenon. Mental process is further subdivided according to the nature of mental activities as follows: 1) Perceptive, 2) Emotive, 3) Cognitive and 4) Desiderative. Furthermore, verbs belonging to the mental process can be divided into two categories according to the receptive variant, namely, ‘like’ and ‘please’. In the ‘like’ type, the grammatical subject is the Senser while the grammatical object is the Phenomenon. In contrast, in the ‘please’ type, the grammatical subject is the Phenomenon, whereas the grammatical object is the Senser.

3. Relational process ‘serves to characterize or identify’ (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 210). It describes what the thing is and what its qualities are or what it has. An example is ‘Sarah is wise’ (ibid.: 216). ‘Is’ is the relational process. ‘Sarah’ is the Carrier of the Attribute ‘wise’.

4. Behavioural process is in the middle, between material and mental process, in the sense that it concerns acting out a state of mind such as ‘laugh’, ‘smile’ or ‘dream’ (ibid.: 250). The participants are Behaver and Behaviour.

5. Verbal process is related to saying, telling or speaking. An example is ‘Chiruma would find any opportunity to talk to that priest about Kubul’ (ibid.: 252). ‘To talk’

is the verbal process. ‘Chiruma’ is the Sayer. ‘That priest’ is the Receiver of the speech. ‘About Kubul’ is the Verbiage or thing that is said.

6. Existential process ‘represents that something exists or happens’ (ibid.: 256). An example is ‘There was an old person at Dover’ (ibid.). There is only one participant – Existent. Here ‘an old person at Dover’ is an Existent.

In interpersonal meaning, language is used for interacting and negotiating interpersonal relationships with others. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004), during interaction, there are two primary types of speech role: giving and demanding. We either give something to our interlocutors or demand something from them. The things or commodities that we give to or demand from our interlocutors are of two kinds: 1) information and 2) goods and services. This classification gives rise to four types of speech functions: 1) offer, 2) statement, 3) command and 4) question. These are summarized in Table 7-1, below, which is taken from Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 107).

role in exchange	commodity exchanged	
	(a) goods -&-services	(b) information
(i) giving	‘offer’ would you like this teapot?	‘statement’ he's giving her the teapot
(ii) demanding	‘command’ give me that teapot!	‘question’ what is he giving her?

Table 7-1 Speech functions

Furthermore, there is a polarity of yes (Positive) and no (Negative), and intermediate degrees, when these speech functions are performed. The intermediate degree is the system of modality. The system of modality varies according to the things being exchanged, i.e. information or goods and services. When it is information and the speech function is a statement, the system of modality construes the degree of certainty or usuality about the statement. Modality of this kind is called modalization. When the exchanged commodity is

goods and services and the speech function is to offer or demand, the modality construes the degree of inclination for the offer and obligation for the command. Modality of this kind is called modulation. Examples of modality are shown below.

1.i [probability] There **can't** be many candlestick-makers left.

1.ii [usuality] It**'ll** change right there in front of your eyes.

2.i [obligation] The roads **should** pay for themselves, like the railways.

2.ii [inclination] Voters **won't** pay taxes any more. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 618)

Furthermore, modality has three levels of value: high, median and low. Some words indicating these values are shown in Table 7-2, below, which is taken from Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 620).

	probability	**usuality**	**obligation**	**inclination**
High	certain	always	required	determined
Median	probable	usually	supposed	keen
Low	possible	sometimes	allowed	willing

Table 7-2 Values and examples of modality

Finally, textual function is how the message is textually organized in a clause. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) term this thematic structure. In a clause, the message consists of two parts: Theme and Rheme. 'The Theme is the element which serves as a point of departure of the message' (ibid.: 64), it is the thing that the clause is about. Rheme is the rest of the message which provides more information about the Theme.

Within Fairclough's approach to critical discourse analysis (2003), analysis at the clausal level aims to shed light on the issue of agency or the lack of it. Fairclough (ibid.) argues that highlighting or hiding the agency of a particular social actor can be driven by

ideological or political motivation. Assigning agency to nominalized action, for example, may obscure the initiator of the action and in turn downplay his/her responsibility for it.

I apply this analytical framework to deconstruct the identity of employer organizations and applicants in university and financial job advertisements. However, the focus of analysis is not directly on the issue of agency but on marketized identity. Given the different focus, there is a difficulty in characterising the discursive construction of the identity of employer organizations and applicants while analyzing data based on this framework. Employing Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) systemic functional framework of transitivity process types, which has been widely used in critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 2003), leads to a distinction between categories that in my opinion should be grouped together. For instance:

*Ex.1 The Department of Architecture and Built Environment **has** an international reputation for its teaching and research [...] (U2010s 1/1907)*

*Ex.2 The Geography Department at the University of Hull **enjoys** a growing international reputation for excellence in research and teaching [...] (U2010s 1266)*

From these examples, it is apparent that both serve to promote the credentials of the employer organization. However, according to Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) framework, the process 'has' in example 1 would be classified as relational process whereas 'enjoys' in example 2 should be classified as mental process. If interpreted correctly, the word 'enjoys' indicates that the subject, the institution, is the senser of the phenomenon, 'a growing international reputation', thereby personalizing the institutional entity. However, in both instances the advertisement is making a claim for the credentials of the organization. As such, the word 'enjoys' also is an instance of a grammatical metaphor of the word 'has', but it adds a further layer of positive evaluative meaning to the clause. If these instances were to be analyzed in a traditional way using transitivity analysis, they would be classified into two

different categories and the shades of positive evaluative meaning caused by the use of different process type would remain unclear. There are many other instances where the meaning of two clauses is relatively similar but different kinds of process type are used. Often it is mental process that is employed as a grammatical metaphor in a place where a relational or material process would be a more congruent form, but the use of a grammatical metaphor enhances the positive evaluative tone of the statement. In consequence, I believe that once the meaning of actions are grouped together before applying transitivity analysis, the significance of choices will be noticed more easily than by looking at mental process and other processes separately.

Another complicating factor is that 2010s university job advertisements contain more categories of process type than do 1970s university job advertisements, adding to the difficulty of diachronic comparison. Further, the categories within the framework do not yield insights into the marketized identity of university and applicant. That is, each category within Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) framework is too broad to show traces of the marketized identity of social actors. In fact, previous studies, namely Mulderrig (2006) and Askehave (2007), also indicate a need to adapt the framework before applying it. In consequence, a comparison based on a more meaning-oriented classification scheme is required to strike at the heart of marketized university recruitment discourse.

Because of these factors I decided to deploy a semantic grouping of actions performed by organizations and applicants to deconstruct the construal of their identity. Instead of sorting actions into process types, I followed Askehave (2007) who investigates how universities and students are represented in prospectuses. She firstly divides the processes into two categories: action and attribution. She then classifies them into meaning groups. The categories of processes that co-occur with universities are shown in Table 7-3.

Action	**Examples**
Support and service providing actions	For study abroad, we *offer* admission to students from overseas universities and colleges
Enabling actions	Stirling *encourages* inter-disciplinary and cross-Faculty study, *making course selections much more straightforward* for the study abroad student
Academics	All our course modules ***are externally assessed*** by leading academics from other UK universities to ensure our standards remain high
Attribution	**Examples**
Size	[Stirling has] ***2000 postgraduate students***
Surrounding and atmosphere	Stirling has ***a strong community feel***
Support services	The University has ***an extensive technical support service*** for students with special needs
On-campus facilities	The campus has ***one of the finest sport facilities*** on a single site in the country
Location-easy access	The University campus is ***less than an hour from Glasgow and Edinburgh***
Academic merits	[it] has ***an excellent reputation*** for its research and teaching

Table 7-3 Askehave's (2007) classification of action and attribution

(Original emphasis in *italics* and my emphasis in ***bold italics***)

I adopt the same approach, dividing processes into action and attribution first. Action consists of material, mental, verbal and behavioural actions, when these refer to an action carried out by someone. Attributions are mainly associated with relational processes. However, it is noted that in some cases, other process types such as material and mental processes are used metaphorically (reference to grammatical metaphor) to construe the qualities/characteristics/attributes of institutional entities (see example 2 on page 236). In this case, they are classified as attribution rather than as action. After that, the actions and attributions are subdivided into semantic groups; the groups are discussed in Section 7.2. In arriving at this grouping I did not depend exclusively on any existing framework. Rather I

used my judgement as to which process types can satisfactorily be grouped together according to their meaning. At the same time, the process type classification of Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) framework is not totally disregarded. It is acknowledged that choosing to represent an attribute via a mental process rather than a relational process, for example, has an ideological and rhetorical consequence for how social actors are represented, as Fairclough (1992) notes. In fact, in this study, the choices seem to heighten the evaluative tone and might be ideologically motivated – reflecting that universities view themselves as businesses and need to be more promotional accordingly[4]; this argument is discussed below, in Section 7.2. Attention will therefore be paid to which process type is selected to represent certain actions that a social actor is construed as doing.

With such a classification, there are cases where material process and mental process, for example, are sorted into one category when the meaning of the action is the same. Both finite and non-finite verbs are included. The criteria for classification into semantic groups take into account not only verbs but also subject and object in the traditional grammar sense. This is because collocates of the verb can influence the meaning of the action and there are some instances of nominalization. For instance:

Ex.3 The Business School is seeking to ***make a number of key academic appointments*** *[...] (U2010s 1457)*

Here 'is seeking to' is considered an instance of modality of inclination modifying the main verb 'make'. Although the main verb is 'make', the meaning of the action is in the whole phrase 'made a number of key academic appointments'. This action is about recruiting and therefore is classified as *recruiting*.

[4] I am grateful for Dr.Wickens and Dr.Bennett for pointing this out.

In what follows, the representation of universities as employers is discussed in terms of the actions that they are construed as performing and the attributes assigned to them. After that, the representation of business employers is presented and compared with findings from the analysis of universities as employers. Then, the representation of applicants in university job advertisements is elaborated. Finally, the representation of applicants in financial job advertisements is presented and compared with the findings from university job advertisements.

7.2 UNIVERSITIES AS EMPLOYER ORGANIZATIONS

Table 7-4 shows the number of instances of action and attribution in which terms related to employer organizations co-occur. The 2010s university job data contain a higher frequency of both action and attribution than the 1970s university job data (163 vs 21). Given that both data sets contain the same number of job advertisements, this increase indicates that employer organizations are mentioned more frequently in 2010s university recruitment discourse. This in turn suggests that current advertisers make more effort to construct and negotiate the identity of the employer organization. This finding seems to be in line with the analysis of move structure described in the previous chapter in which there is a sharp surge in *Move 1: Establishing credentials* in 2010s university job advertisements (see Section 6.2).

	1970s		**2010s**	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
action	15	71.13	83	50.92
attribution	6	28.57	80	49.08
total	21	100	163	100

Table 7-4 Frequency of action and attribution of employer organizations in university job advertisements

When looking at the proportions of process types, the 1970s university job advertisements have a higher percentage of instances where the employer organization is construed as performing an action than do the 2010s university job advertisements. This may at first seem to suggest that in the 1970s data employer organizations are represented as more active and powerful than in the 2010s data. However, this higher proportion results from the fact that the 2010s university job advertisements ascribe attributes to the employer organization far more frequently, thereby lowering the proportion of action representation. The higher percentage of attributes can also indicate that there is an increasing emphasis on constructing the identity of the employer organization through discourse.

So far, the discussion of action and attribution indicates a rise in the number of instances where the employer organization is referred to and the activities that they are construed as performing in 2010s university recruitment discourse. However, frequency alone does not lead directly to the conclusion that university recruitment discourse has become more promotional or marketized. Further analysis of each process type is required. Questions remain as to what kinds of actions employer organizations are construed as performing and what attributes are assigned to them. In consequence, I subdivide the verbs construing actions and attributes according to semantic grouping, as discussed above.

In what follows, I elaborate on each category and its sub-classification. In so doing, I aim to show that only through these sub-classifications can we gain insights into the entrepreneurialism (Mautner, 2005) and market ideology in university recruitment discourse. Below, it is argued that there is a large discrepancy between the way 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements present employer organizations. While employer organizations in 1970s job advertisements are generally represented as *recruiting* and *working* only,

employer organizations in 2010s job advertisements are construed as performing various kinds of activities.

Another crucial difference between the two is the heavily evaluative discourse in 2010s university job advertisements. Many types of actions and attributions identified in 2010s advertisements are imbued with evaluative characteristics. These are business-/ social-/ intellectual-oriented. To use Martin and White's (2005:19) term, there is a heavy 'saturation' of evaluative language. Consequently, the theme of evaluative language recurs throughout this section. Predominant activities in the 2010s portray employer organizations as highly reputable, egalitarian and in control of their own sense of direction. These activities seem to be used to sell the organization by indicating that it is a good organization to work in and offers various kinds of benefits to employees. In addition, the different linguistic choices (process type and word choice) that appear in 2010s university job advertisements are highly evaluative and promotional about the employer organization.

7.2.1 Action

In the 1970s job advertisements, there are 15 instances where universities are construed as performing an action. However, in the 2010s job advertisements, there are 83 instances. This latter number indicates that in the 2010s job advertisements, universities are presented as being more dynamic and active actors performing a lot of actions. This increase is in fact not only in terms of the number but also the range of actions. I will therefore show similar actions that universities perform in the 1970s and 2010s job advertisements and then show the actions that only universities in the 2010s job advertisements are construed as performing.

Recruiting

The first type of action co-occurring with employer organizations in both data sets is *recruiting*. Examples are provided below:

*Ex.4 The University **proposes to appoint** a Reader or University Lecturer in Criminology (U1972 3).*

*Ex.5 The University Court **invites applications** for the above chair. (U1974 6)*

*Ex.6 We **are seeking** a Professor with an international research track record […] (U2010s 1/1575)*

*Ex.7 The University of Edinburgh, home to one of the leading Psychology departments in the UK, **seeks to appoint** 3 permanent, full time lecturers [...] (U2010s 4/14)*

From the examples above, the processes related to recruitment are 'appoint' (examples 4 and 7), 'invites applications' (example 5) and 'are seeking' (example 6). In examples 4 and 7, there are verbal group complexes 'proposes to appoint' and 'seeks to appoint' but the second verb 'appoint' is more semantically dominant while 'proposes to' and 'seeks to' are considered examples of modality of inclination (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) which modify the process.

In addition to material process, there are three instances in the 2010s where relational process is used to indicate recruitment activity, phrasing it as the university having a vacancy. Here it is likely that universities would be interpreted as recruiting rather than having certain attributes and thus these instances are classified as action. These instances are shown below:

*Ex.8 We currently **have** a **PhD studentship** to work on a project […] (U2010s 1564)*

*Ex.9 We **have an exciting opportunity** for new students to undertake research in these areas (U2010s 1728)*

*Ex.10 We **have a vacancy** in our bioinformatics group […] (U2010s 1/330)*

One thing to note is that while in examples 8 and 10 the organization has a position or vacancy, in example 9 the organization has an 'exciting opportunity'. As noted earlier in Section 5.3, this phrase is highly evaluative due to the words 'exciting' and 'opportunity' and

I have argued that it is used to sell the job to potential applicants. The presence of this phrase therefore shows a commercialized recruitment discourse.

Table 7-5 illustrates recurrent phrases associated with the *recruiting* category in the 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements. The number at the end of the phrases represents their frequency and, when no number is provided, it means that the phrase/ word occurs only once. Capitals refer to the lemma. N stands for a noun while V stands for a verb. The actual words for V are also provided in brackets.

1970s	**2010s**
proposes to appoint + N (2)	(BE) + SEEK + N (7)
wishes to appoint + N	BE + seeking + to + V. (appoint 5, make a number of key academic appointments)
invites applications	RECRUIT + N
wishes to expand the latter activity by the addition of one new staff member	invites applications
offering studentship (2)	BE+ looking + to + V (recruit, appoint 2, strengthen our research and support team)
	wishes to appoint + N (4)
	(BE) + LOOK FOR + N (4)
	Employ
	HAVE + N related to vacancy

Table 7-5 phrases related to *recruiting* in 1970s and 2010s data

From Table 7-5, it is apparent that the 2010s data employ a greater variety of phrases and that word types are more varied than in the 1970s data. Whereas the words 'appoint', 'invite' and 'expand' are found in the 1970s data, the words 'appoint', 'seek', 'recruit', 'looking for', 'strengthen', 'invite' and 'employ' are found in the 2010s data. In addition, the progressive aspect is used only in the 2010s data, thereby presenting the organization as dynamic. The absence of the progressive aspect in *recruiting* process in 1970s data makes employer organizations appear static. The modality of inclination is found more frequently in the 2010s

data (14 vs 3). The modality of inclination implies the volition and enthusiasm of employer organizations, thereby personalizing the identity of institutions.

At this point, ones may wonder why the 1970s university job advertisements do not state their vacancy or desire for new members. In fact, they do express their desire for new members but this involves use of the phrase 'Applications are invited for/ from' (41 occurrences). Such a phraseological pattern comprises nominalization and passive construction, rendering the university and applicants absent from university job advertisements. In consequence, this phrase is more formal and distant. The 2010s university job advertisements do in fact contain this phrase but the frequency is much lower (13 instances). This phrase relates to the construal of power relations and social distance; this topic is discussed in more detail in Section 7.4.

From the comparison of the phrase 'applications are invited' and other process types related to *recruiting* in the 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements, it may be concluded that there is a sharp contrast in the representation of employer organizations. With respect to *recruiting*, the 1970s university job advertisements present the organization as static and distant, while 2010s university job advertisements present employer organizations as dynamic, socially close and enthusiastic about finding new members.

Working

The second group of material process types is *working*. There are 6 instances of this action group in the 1970s data and 23 instances in the 2010s data. These are related to work activities that the institutions perform. Examples are shown below:

Ex.11 At present, it [the Department] ***teaches*** *for the degree of B.Sc. (Ecological Science […] (U1974 6)*

*Ex.12 The department also **undertakes technical studies [**…] (U1974 7)*

*Ex.13 We **work** with ambitious students whose abilities are matched by their creativity and enthusiasm (U2010s 4/305)*

*Ex.14 The EPS Web Services Team **supports the creation and delivery of information** to the staff and students […] (U2010s 4/100)*

The examples above show the processes related to *working*, namely 'teaches' (example 11), 'undertakes technical studies' (example 12), 'work with' (example 13) and 'supports' (example 14). Table 7-6 shows all the phrases that belong to this category.

1970s	**2010s**
conduct teaching	identified
teaches	have shown
provide computing services	investigate
perform a dual role	SUPPORT (5)
undertake technical studies	lead
RUN (2)	work (2)
	provide a professional service
	provide a vital role in the maintenance
	employ the latest next generation sequencing
	act
	focus on undertaking cutting-edge research
	run
	develop (2)
	contribute to knowledge and understanding of economics
	enhancing student engagement and their experience
	offering a wide range of programmes
	commited to safeguarding and promoting the welfare of young people
	cover the spectrum of contemporary biological sciences

Table 7-6 Processes related to *working* in 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements

The *working* group can be subdivided into five subcategories. These are: 1) *teaching* as in 'teaches', 2) *research* such as 'focus on undertaking cutting-edge research, 3) *support services* such as 'provide a professional service', 4) *administration/ management* as in 'lead'

and 5) others as in 'committed to safeguarding and promoting the welfare of young people'. From this list, it is apparent that in the 2010s data, there are more instances of research (7 vs 1) and support services (8 vs 2) than the 1970s data. As a consequence, the roles of support services are more prevalent in recruitment discourse. It should be noted that the *teaching* group in the 2010s university job advertisements does not contain the word 'teach'. Instead, the university is 'working with students', thereby putting students on an equal footing and conceptualizing their relation as a partnership. Furthermore, there is one occurrence of the word 'offer' in which a university provides services to students as shown below. So instead of teaching, the university provides service and works with students as partners.

Ex.15 […] one of the largest academic groups in Kingston University ***offering a wide range of programmes*** *at Undergraduate, Postgraduate and Doctoral… (U2010s 1753)*

In addition, there are two interesting instances where groups within a university are construed using service-oriented vocabulary, as shown below. Here, the personnel within a university, possibly including staff members and students, are referred to as 'customers'. This shows the colonization of business ideology in the university.

Ex.16 The Service Desk ***acts*** *as the focal point for all ICT-related queries and requests from ICT's* ***customers*** *(U2010s 1622)*

Ex.17 (The Service Desk), yet also ***acts*** *as the 'face' of ICT to its* ***customer*** *base (U2010s 1622).*

Financing

Another group, *financing,* contains instances where the organization is engaged in money-related activities. This is often related to the university giving money for some cause or another organization giving money to the university. Below are examples:

Ex.18 The School has ***received*** *a grant from the Esmee Fair Charitable Trust […] (U1971 14)*

*Ex.19 LBS […] has been **focusing research investment** within Business and Management (U2010s 1/1575)*

*Ex.20 We **attracted** over £200 million of funding last year (U2010s 1/264)*

In the 1970s university job advertisements, the School is a beneficiary of the action. In the 2010s university job advertisements, the universities play a more active role since they are the initiators of money-related activities. Moreover, in example 19, the word 'investment' has a profit-oriented undertone. In the 2010s data, there are four occurrences in which universities are actors performing money-related activities, two of which are related to investment. I would argue that these are indicators of entrepreneurialism in university recruitment discourse, which is absent from the 1970s university job advertisements. However, in the 2010s university job advertisements there are two instances where the organization is just the beneficiary, rather than a dynamic actor, as shown below. These statements are, nonetheless, promotional due to the word 'well'. Both the examples above and examples 21 and 22 show the trend in which universities nowadays convey their economic strength to applicants as business organizations do.

*Ex.21 We **are well funded** from many different grant bodies […] (U2010s 1/1645)*

*Ex.22 [the research group] **is well supported** by externally funded research grants (U2010s 1/565)*

There are three semantic groups that only appear in the 2010s university job advertisements: *promising work conditions, creating/ developing* and *requiring*.

Promising work conditions

The first group, *promising work conditions*, appears 4 times in the 2010s university job advertisements. Examples are provided below:

*Ex.23 In return, we **offer** a comprehensive package of in-house staff training and development […] (U2010s 1/1405)*

*Ex.24 The Student and Academic Administration (SAA) professional service **offers** a **friendly and supportive** working environment […] (U2010s 4/149)*

It is evident from the examples above that although all of them use the word 'offer', the kind of offer and the manner of offering are different. In the 2010s, the institution incentivizes potential applicants with professional development opportunities and 'a friendly and supportive working environment'. These statements are also highly evaluative, as can be seen from the words 'comprehensive', 'friendly' and 'supportive'. In consequence, these statements seem to incentivize potential applicants by telling them about the attractive environment in which they will work.

Creating/ developing

The *creating/ developing* group refers to words related to constructing or words associated with the expansion or growth of the organization. There are 12 occurrences of this group, and two of them are shown in the examples below:

*Ex.25 The Imperial College London Cancer Research UK Cancer Centre **has recently been established** to enhance cross-faculty collaboration […] (U2010s 375).*

*Ex.26 […] it (the Department) **seeks to further strengthen** its position as a leading international centre of architecture and building services teaching, learning and research (U2010s 1/1907)*

The first example is about establishing an organization. The second example shows how the organization promotes itself by boasting of its development. In example 26, the word 'further' seems to carry a presupposition that the department is already a leading international centre but is now in the process of boosting its reputation. The phrase 'seeks to' is an instance of modality of inclination modifying the process 'further strengthen', which in turn signifies the eagerness of the organization. The word 'strengthen' also presupposes that the department already has 'a position as a leading international centre of architecture and building services'.

Requiring

The last category is *requiring*, of which there are 6 instances. There are many ways of expressing requirement. Mostly the category is related to the representation of applicants as discussed in Section 7.3. When the employer organization is the actor in this process, there are three ways of phrasing requirements. The first one is phrasing them directly, as shown in 'we expect'. It should be noted that 'we expect' seems be less imposing than 'applicants must' and seems to mitigate the imposition on applicants by personalizing the requirements through use of the personal pronoun 'we' and the word 'expect', which frame the requirements as employer's expectations.

*Ex.27 We **expect** at least one of the successful applicants to drive forward an experimental programme [...] (U2010s 1457)*

The second way is phrasing requirements as an ability on the employer organization's part, as shown in the examples that follow:

*Ex.28 Due to recent government policy changes on immigration, we **can only accept** applications from Non EEA candidates who hold Tier 1 status […] (U2010s 1414)*

*Ex.29 **Regrettably** we **are unable to consider** applications from candidates who require […] (U2010s 1472)*

These examples contain modals indicating inability and the cognitive process type, but they actually indicate requirements. The first example uses the modal 'can only' which indicates limited ability, but it actually states a requirement that 'Non EEA' applicants need to have a visa already. It also uses a negative politeness strategy of providing a reason (Brown and Levinson, 1983) for stating this requirement. The second example contains the word 'unable' which shows the inability to accept some conditions, but in fact it is a requirement for candidates to have certain attributes and to comply with the application procedure. There is also use of the modal adjunct 'regrettably' which sounds apologetic. Thus a requirement is

phrased as an inability and hedged with an apology which is also another negative politeness strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1983). These strategies seem to reduce the power relation between organization and applicants.

Another way to express a requirement is by phrasing it as a preference, as shown below. This is achieved through the use of inclination modulation, 'are keen to', which is in the form of grammatical metaphor (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 620), and the perceptive mental process 'hear', which mitigates the imposition posed on the reader. Such indirectness seems to lower the power relation between the organization and applicants. The second sentence shows an instance where the university is the senser and here it expresses a preference for people with certain qualities. It is therefore an indirect way or a grammatical metaphor for stating requirements by framing it as a welcome.

*Ex.30 We **are keen to hear** from applicants who can demonstrate that they can make a significant contribution to the further growth of Brunel Business School. (U2010s 1519)*

*Ex.31 [...] (the University) specifically **welcoming** those that can teach Business in Emerging markets (U2010s 1/1519)*

There are two instances of process types that cannot be classified in any group. One is from the 1970s university job advertisements and one from the 2010s university job advertisements, as shown below:

*Ex.32 The Unit **has just moved** into a new building, the Wolfson Centre in the central university precinct (U1972 2)*

*Ex.33 The University of Oxford **is introducing** a new e-Recruitment system… (U2010s 202)*

Figure 7-1 summarizes the frequency of semantic categories of actions that employer organizations are construed as performing in 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements.

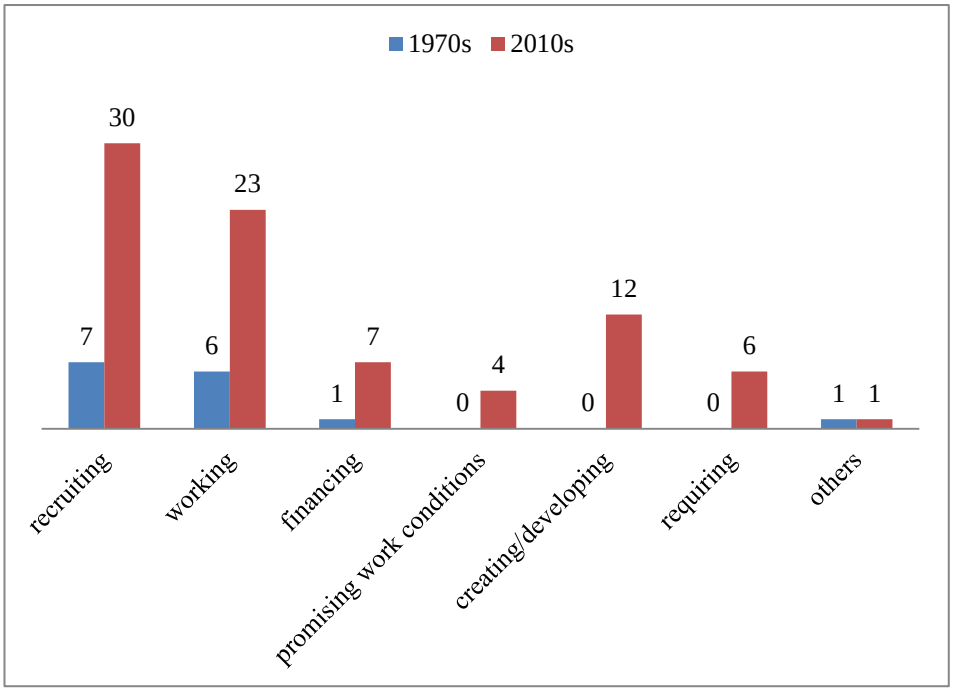


Figure 7-1 Frequency of semantic categories of actions in university job advertisements

From Figure 7-1, it can be seen that there is a marked increase in all semantic categories. There is a surge in *recruiting*, which is about expressing a desire for new members. In consequence, the employer organization is construed as more enthusiastic about recruiting new members. In addition, the employer organization frequently occurs as an agent of money-related action in the 2010s data. The sharp increase in the *financing* category indicates a higher emphasis on the generosity of the university, which is represented as being more actively engaged in financial activities and construed as entrepreneurial. There are three categories that are not identified in the 1970s data: *promising work conditions*, *creating/ developing* and *requiring*. There are instances of *promising work conditions* which are related to incentivizing potential applicants. The *creating/ developing* category shows self-promotion about the growth of the organization. The *requiring* category is used not to impose requirements but rather to mitigate them. Consequently, this category shows an attempt to

reduce the power relation between the employer organization – the gatekeeper – and applicants.

Another way of seeing the pattern of action is through the proportion of actions performed. This is shown in the pie charts below:

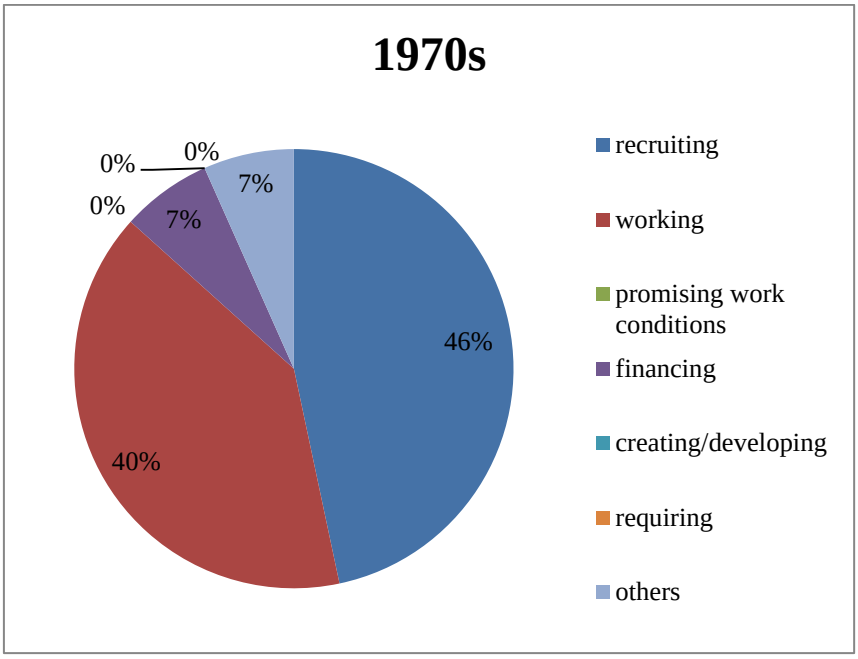


Figure 7-2 Proportion of actions in the 1970s university job advertisements

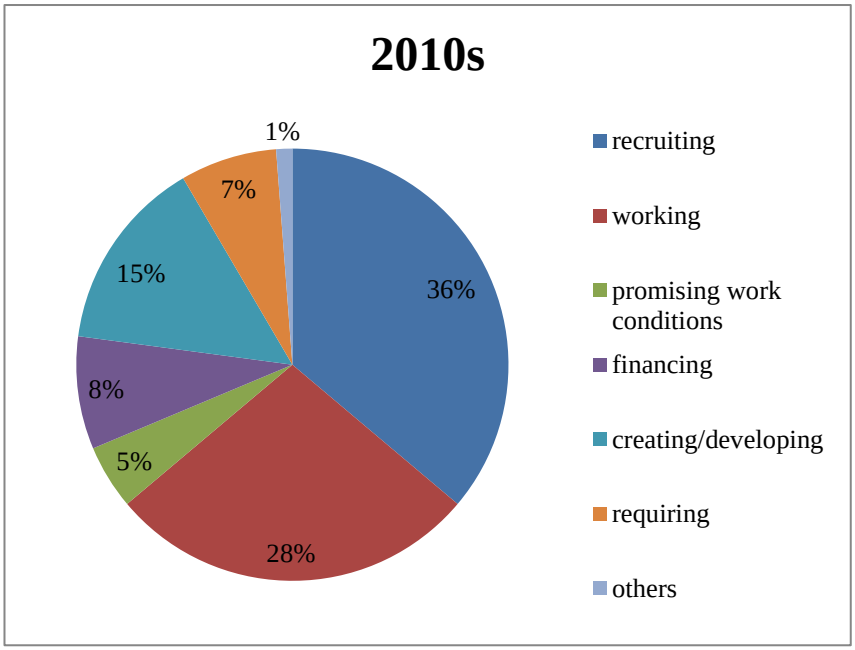


Figure 7-3 Proportion of actions in 2010s university job advertisements

From Figures 7-2 and 7-3, it is apparent that the proportions of actions co-occurring with employer organizations in the 1970s and 2010s advertisements are very different. While in the 1970s advertisements the predominant actions are *working* and *recruiting*, in the 2010s the *working* category loses its prominence (from 40 to 28 per cent). The *recruiting* category still remains a predominant action. However, there are many other kinds of actions – *promising work conditions*, *creating/ developing* and *requiring* – emerging. The first two of these are promotional-oriented and once the percentages of these categories are combined, they form one-third of the actions (28 per cent). Therefore, it seems that while the 1970s advertisements emphasize the duties of the employer organization, the 2010s advertisements increasingly focus on promoting it as a growing and generous organization. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, the use of grammatical metaphor in various categories ascribes volition to the organization and increases the rhetorical effect of evaluative and promotional statements.

7.2.2 Attribution

There are six instances where the organization is construed as having certain attributes in the 1970s university job advertisements, while in the 2010s university job advertisements, there are 80. This drastic increase indicates that universities in the 2010s place more emphasis on presenting their identity, both in terms of what they are and what they have. Mostly, the presentation of identity serves a self-promotional purpose. The attributes and values that are ascribed to organizations comprise: 1) *part of a group/ organizational classification*, 2) *credentials*, 3) *plan/ mission/ commitment*, 4) *equal opportunity* 5) *location* and 6) *legal status and* 7) *others*. Only the first two are shared by the 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements; therefore, they are discussed first.

Part of a group/ organizational classification

The first group of value/ attribute, *part of a group/ organizational classification*, appears 3 times in the 1970s university job advertisements and 4 times in the 2010s ones. This group refers to the fact that the department/ school or organization is part of a larger body of organization or collaboration between different organizations. Excerpts are provided below:

*Ex.34 The bioengineering unit is **a department of the university**… (U1972 2)*

*Ex.35 The Department [...] is **one of the twelve departments** in the School of Biology (U1974 6)*

*Ex.36 The Department of Leadership, HRM and Organization is **one of the four specialist academic departments** within the Business School (U2010s 1753)*

*Ex.37 The Energy and Technology Partnership, ETP (web) is **an alliance of Scottish Universities** [...] (U2010s 4/376)*

Credentials

The second group of value/ attribute, *credentials*, promotes the reputation of the organization. There are three instances in the 1970s university job advertisements. However,

in the 2010s university job advertisements, the number rises to 54. Based on this sharp increase, it is argued that the universities are more promotional about their reputation and more actively engaged in selling themselves. Excerpts are illustrated below:

*Ex.38 The University of London Computer Centre is **one of the largest** computer installations in the UK [...] (U1974 7)*

*Ex.39 The Department of Biology is an **expanding and thriving research community** of the highest **international** calibre (U2010s 1/264)*

*Ex.40 The University [...] is **ranked 10th** in the UK for graduate employability according to The Times Good University Guide 2010. (U2010s 1/1405).*

In example 38, the organization bases its credentials on its size. Examples 39 and 40 are from the 2010s university job advertisements. In example 39, the department uses its growth and international recognition as credentials. In example 40, the university boasts its ranking and supports this claim by citing the Times Good University Guide. The use of ranking is prevalent in the 2010s university job advertisements (6 occurrences). In addition, the organization mentions its research record, academic excellence and establishment as well. Facilities and resources are used as credentials in the 1970s university job advertisements and four times in the 2010s university job advertisements. Examples are shown below:

*Ex.41 [...] (the unit) has **clinical laboratories** in six hospitals in the Glasgow area (U1972 2)*

*Ex.42 The School has **excellent research resources** with a range of databases [...] (U2010s 1/357)*

The credentials also include links and connections which are related to the organization's network. There are three occurrences in the 2010s university job advertisements, so all of them are shown here.

*Ex.43 The Unit **is** also active in **various international crop working groups and networks** in the European Cooperative Programme for Plant Genetic Resources, and **has close links** with the horticulture group at the Centre for Genetic Resources the Netherlands. (U2010s 1892).*

*Ex.44 The research group has **a very active network of international collaborators** [...] (U2010s 1/656)*

Example 43 contains two instances of these attributes. Generally, these attributes are used to convey the organization's influence on an international level, as shown in 'international collaborators' and 'international crop working groups'.

When it comes to size, sometimes the employer organization uses mental process to add dynamism and personalization to the message, as shown in the examples below:

*Ex.45 (The School) It **has seen** an unprecedented growth in PhD students with over 160 registered research students (U2010s 1519).*

*Ex.46 The University **attracts** over 2,200 students (35% at postgraduate level […] (U2010s 1/1405)*

In the first example, the word 'seen' is used to make claims about its credentials. A more congruent form would be 'It has an unprecedented growth', and consequently this sentence is an instance of grammatical metaphor. The use of a perceptive mental process is a personalization of the institution. In addition, I further investigated the use of 'has seen' in the British National Corpus.[5] I looked at collocates with a span between 1 to 3 words on the right which are a noun. There are 13 collocates as follows: 'increases', 'changes', 'growth', 'decline', 'rise', 'number', 'fall', 'change', 'progress', 'days', 'share', 'light' and 'development'. The overwhelming semantic association is about growing and developing (5 collocates). The use of 'has seen' therefore intensifies the positive connotation of growth. Looking at the distribution of 'has seen' and the collocate 'growth' in the BNC corpus (concordances are provided in Table 7-7), I found that 5 instances are from the category of *Informative: Commerce and finance*. The concordance lines also show that 'has seen' and 'growth' are mainly used in relation to profit and sales volumes (lines 2-4 and 7-10), indicating that this phraseology is associated with business discourse. In consequence, the

[5] ***The British National Corpus***, version 3 (BNC XML Edition). 2007. Distributed by Oxford University Computing Services on behalf of the BNC Consortium. URL: http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/

deployment of this phraseology to describe student numbers implicitly frames this issue in business terms, i.e. students are profit to be made.

in local voting behaviour. Local government	has seen	the growth of intra-as well as inter-party politics
beneath their enormous bundles. The last decade	has seen	the growth of orchids and other sub-tropical
rock bottom prices. Over the last two years the UK	has seen	dramatic growth in the number of PCs bought
up solid gains. Book publisher Dorling Kindersley	has seen	the strongest growth. In the three weeks since
to particular industries. The twentieth century	has seen	the growth of a considerable literature on
theology, metaphysics and physics. This century	has seen	a great growth of scholarly interest in Hobbes'
on customer service and quality systems. The year	has seen	further growth in Far East markets together
Johnson Matthey's pharmaceutical business	has seen	continued growth and has made a strong
five areas. Teamwork boosts profits [gap:name]	has seen	impressive growth over the last two years —
first quarter of 1993. The animal feed market	has seen	slow volume growth in the first part of 1993
New fields for experts The twentieth century	has seen	the growth of new technologies and of the

Table 7-7 Concordances for 'has seen' with its 'growth' collocates[6]

Example 46 illustrates the case where the organization is in the role of a phenomenon while other social participants are sensers. In this case, students, the sensers, have a positive attitude towards the university, feeling attracted to it. In fact, it may be useful to think of an alternative, and perhaps more straightforward, way to phrase this sentence. A more congruent form of this sentence would be 'The University has over 2,200 students'. Here no emotional engagement is involved. The use of 'attract' as a process presumes a positive emotion of the students. The selection of this process is consequently strategic as it presupposes that students like the university. Furthermore, it suggests that the university is popular because a large number of students are attracted to it.

There are instances where a passive construction with a mental process is used to indicate the good reputation of the employer organization. The organization is in the role of a phenomenon often sensed by an unknown 'senser'. This gives the impression that the

[6] "Data cited herein have been extracted from the British National Corpus Online service, managed by Oxford University Computing Services on behalf of the BNC Consortium. All rights in the texts cited are reserved."

organization is not simply promoting itself but is promoted by the general public or certain kinds of authority, as shown in the excerpts below.

*Ex.47 Cranfield School of management **has long been recognized** as a leading centre of excellence for research and teaching in Finance and Accounting […] (U2010s 1/357)*

*Ex.48 Biology at York ranked first-equal among UK broad spectrum biology departments for research **judged** 'world-leading' by the UK RAE […] (U2010s 1/264)*

Example 47 is a self-promotion statement with use of the cognitive mental process 'recognized'. Here the institution is in the role of a phenomenon being recognized by an unknown senser. The promotional message 'a leading centre of excellence' is a circumstantial adjunct. Given that this sentence shows an attribute of the school, a more congruent form is 'Cranfield School of Management is a leading centre of excellence'. Phrasing this statement with a mental process as shown in the example serves as a justification for self-promotion by giving the impression that it is the public that acknowledges the school. In the second example, the research of the various departments is a phenomenon 'judged' by the RAE and contains the promotional message 'world-leading'.

There is one instance of a verbal process which is used to promote the organization, as shown below.

*Ex.49 A commitment to high quality […] led the Times Higher Education to **describe** us as "elite" without being "elitist". (U2010s 1/437).*

In this example, the advertisement cites a media source which commends the university. The Times Higher Education is the sayer while the university is a target. The use of a media source gives more authority to the claim and at the same time indicates the university's concern over its image.

A striking feature is the fact that some universities mention turnover as a self-proclamation based on size. An example is shown below. This was unprecedented in 1970s

university job advertisements but appears in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements. This indicates an increasing trend in which universities present their wealth and portray themselves as wealthy and lucrative businesses.

Ex.50 Lancashire Business School (LBS), based in Preston, ***has a turnover of £13 million*** *with over 3,500 students, over 100 academics [...] (U2010s 1/1575)*

There are four instances where the material process type is used to present the credentials of the organization. Three of these involve use of the word 'build', as shown below.

Ex.51 ***Building on the existing academic strengths*** *of the University of Exeter, the 30 million pound Environment and Sustainability Institute [...] (U2010s 1/120)*

Ex. 52 [...] Winchester School of Art ***continues to build on its reputation*** *for excellence and innovation (U2010s 4/305)*

Ex.53 […], ***building upon its popular portfolio*** *of courses with new programmes […] (U2010s 1519)*

In these examples, the phrase 'building on' is used in a metaphorical sense, which may indicate conceptualization of the organization as a building (Kovecses, 2002). The use of a building metaphor seems to connote a sense of stability of the organization (Charteris-Black, 2004). The phrase 'building on' suggests an image of a building which already has a strong base, thereby showing a presupposition at the level of conceptualization.

In two instances 'building on' is used as a non-finite adjunct, thereby presupposing that the university already has certain strengths. Reputation or strength is taken for granted in a non-finite adjunct, instead of being stated outright in a finite clause, which would be more open to objection. As such this is a presupposition trigger through a grammatical construction. Notice also example 52 where the word 'continue' is used. 'Continue' is a lexical trigger of presupposition (Huang, 2007) and presupposes that the university already builds on its reputation.

The last example contains the word ‘benefit’, as shown below. In this example, the phrase ‘benefiting from their position’ seems to carry the presupposition that the university is a Russell Group University. By associating itself with a group of old and prestigious universities, the employer organization sends a promotional message about its influence.

Ex.54 ***Benefiting from their position*** *within the research-oriented culture of a Russell Group University […] (U2010s 55)*

Another five categories only appear in the 2010s university job advertisements. The first of these is *plan/ mission/ commitment* which occurs four times.

Plan/ mission/ commitment

Here are examples from the data.

Ex.55 The ***central mission*** *of the institute* ***is*** *to provide evidence-based understanding and intellectual leadership […] (U2010s 1/2526)*

Ex.56 The School has ***an ambitious strategy for growth*** *across all teaching and research areas (U2010s 1519)*

The first example, the words ‘central mission’, indicates the mission of the organization. The plan or ‘strategy’ in example 56 can be argued to promote the university due to the word ‘ambitious’ and the emphasis on ‘growth’. This category shows the aspiration of the organization, so it can be regarded as a form of mission statement. The presence of this category indicates an emphasis on organizational identity construction, a strategy associated with self-promotion.

Equal opportunity

Another category, *equal opportunity*, is an equal opportunity statement which is a legal requirement. It occurs 14 times. Examples are provided below:

Ex.57 The University of Exeter is an equal opportunity employer. (U2010s 1/120)

Ex.58 The University is committed to equality in employment. (U2010s 1/656)

In both examples, the relational process is used to present the organization as an equal opportunity employer.

Mental process type is also used as shown below:

*Ex.59 We **value** diversity and **welcome** applications from all sections of the community (U2010s 4/376)*

*Ex.60 The University of Manchester **values** a diverse workforce and welcomes applications from all sections of the community. (U2010s 4/100)*

In these examples the words 'value' and 'welcome' are used. While equal opportunity is a legal requirement, the use of mental process seems to frame this message as something that the employer organization values or wants of its own volition. In consequence, the use of mental process for equal opportunity conveys an image of organizations which have an inclusive organizational culture.

Three other categories which have very low frequencies are legal status and location. Examples 61 and 62 show location. Example 63 shows the legal status of the university. Example 64 is *other*, which cannot be classified.

*Ex.61 We are **located** dockside at the National Oceanography Centre, Southampton. (U2010s 1/2433)*

*Ex.62 […] a thriving international genomics facility **based** at the Roslin Institute. (U2010s 1/330)*

*Ex.63 The University of Strathclyde is a **charitable body** […] (U2010s 4/376)*

*Ex.64 We are **open** from 08.30 to 18.00 […] (U2010s 1622).*

Figure 7-4 presents the attributes/ values assigned to institutions in the 1970s and 2010s university job advertisements.

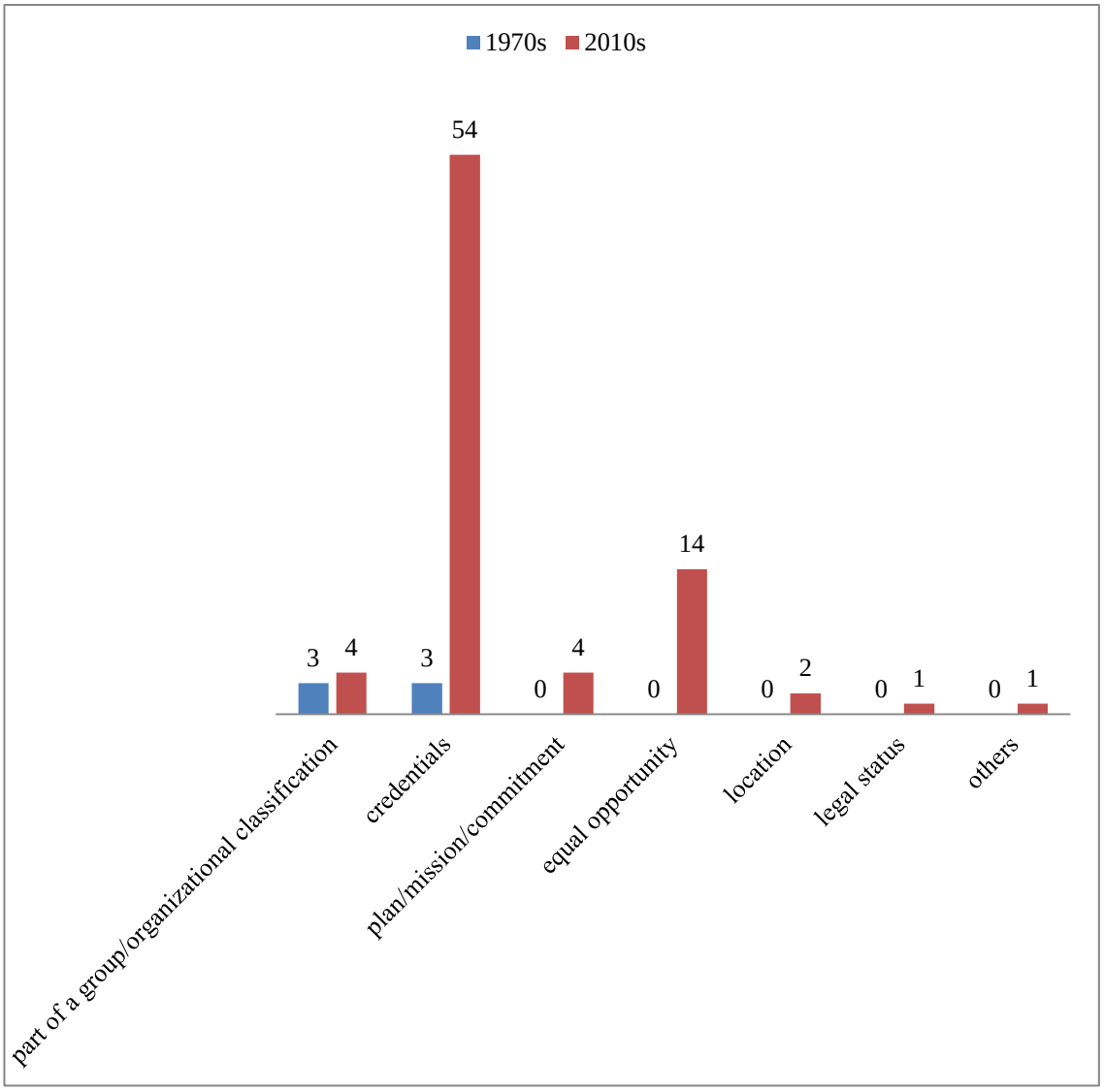


Figure 7-4 Frequency of values/attributes assigned to organizations

This figure shows a trend whereby all of the attributes/ values increase in the 2010s data. The most predominant category is *credentials*, thereby indicating that universities focus more on promoting themselves based on credentials when communicating their organizational identity through recruitment discourse. There are three categories that do not occur in the 1970s university job advertisements: 1) *plan/ mission/ commitment*, 2) *equal opportunity,* 3) *legal status,* 4) *location* and 5) *others*. The first two are associated with the promotional features of job advertisements. The second is about equal opportunity, which is a legal

requirement. However, it was argued earlier that there are cases where mental process is used and presents equal opportunity as a value and aspiration of the university.

The proportion of attributions in each job advertisement is shown in the two figures below.

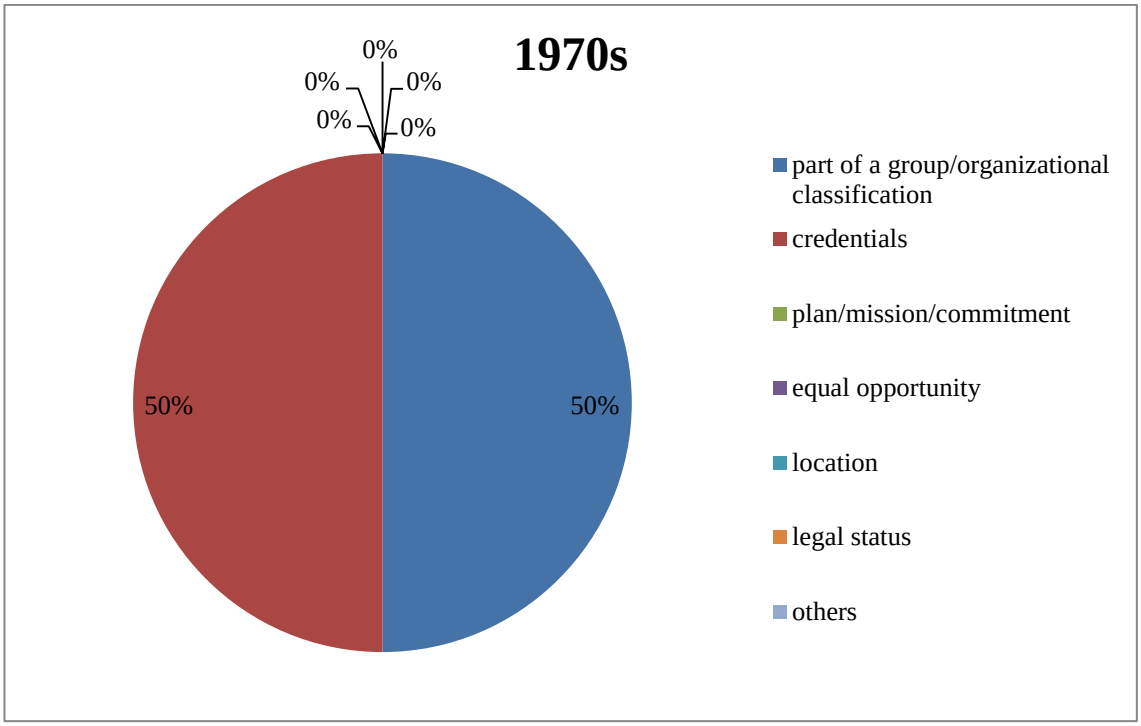


Figure 7-5 Proportion of attributes in the 1970s university job advertisements

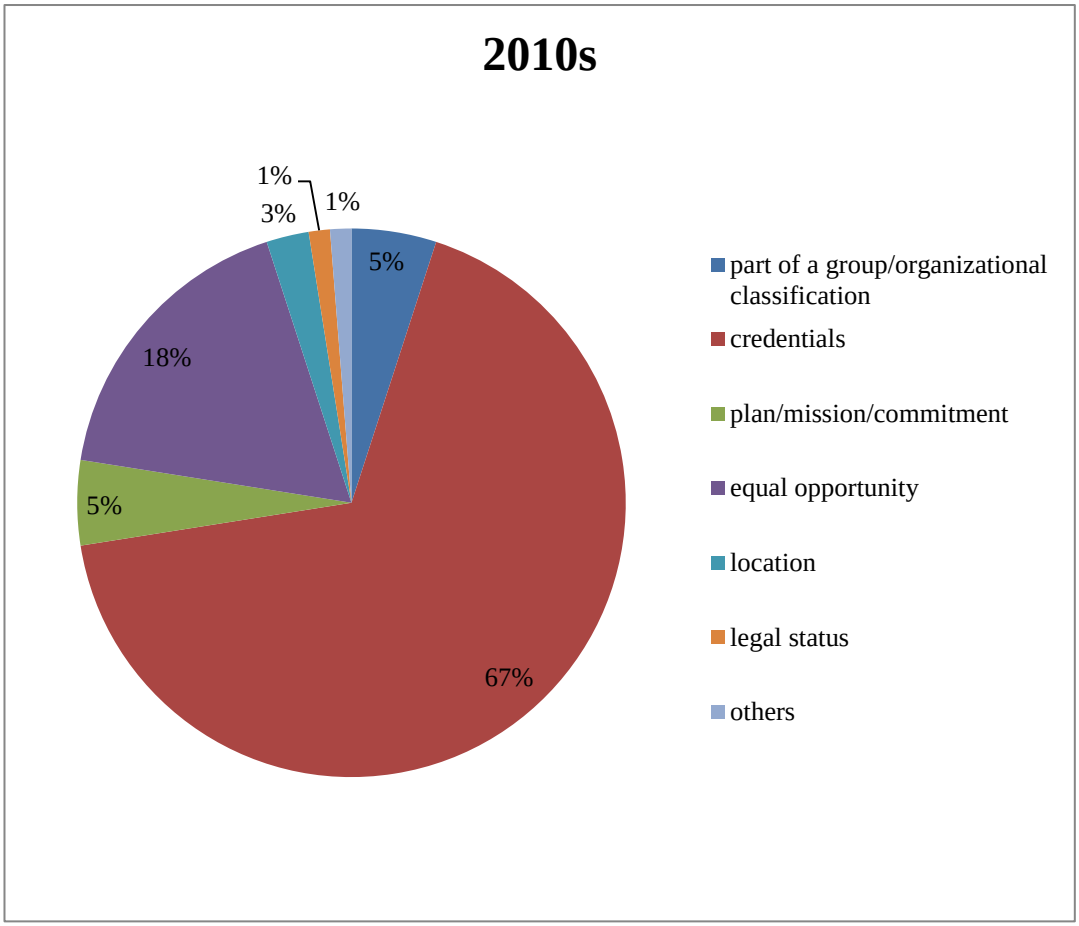


Figure 7-6 Proportion of attributes in the 2010s university job advertisements

From Figures 7-5 and 7-6, it is obvious that while *part of a group/ organizational classification* and *credentials* are equally predominant attribute in the 1970s advertisements, *credentials* is the most salient attribute in the 2010s advertisements. This further elucidates the heightened emphasis on self-promotion in the representation of employer organizations in the 2010s university job advertisements. The frequency of *part of a group/ organizational classification* remains relatively stable but the proportion is drastically lower in the 2010s advertisements. Therefore, instead of describing the organization in a neutral manner, the 2010s advertisements describe the organization in a promotional manner. In consequence, the 2010s advertisements place more emphasis on selling the organization.

7.3 BUSINESS EMPLOYERS

This section presents the results of data analysis from business job advertisement data and compares the findings with those from the analysis of university job advertisements. In so doing, it is hypothesized that a trace of linguistic change attributable to business ideology and discourse practice will be unveiled. Firstly, the total occurrences of action and attribution are presented in Table 7-8, below:

	U1970s	**U2010s**	**F1970s**	**F2010**
action	15	83	120	139
attribution	6	80	47	92
total	21	163	167	231

Table 7-8 Frequency of actions and attributions across the four data sets

From the table, it is apparent that there is an increase in the instances where employer organizations are referred to. The percentages of action and attribution indicate that the 2010 financial job advertisements place more emphasis on constructing organizational identity, as shown by the higher proportion of attribution. When comparing with the university job data, it is obvious that employer organizations are mentioned much more frequently in financial job advertisements than in university job advertisements.

Diachronically, the rise is clearly marked in the university job data (from 21 to 163 which is a 676 per cent increase) while the increase in the financial job data is much smaller (from 167 to 231 which is a 38 per cent increase). It is argued that references to employer organizations have been common in the financial job advertisements since the 1970s but were uncommon in 1970s university job advertisements. Such practice has become more common in 2010s university job advertisements. In terms of the proportions of action and attribution, the trend is similar in both university and financial job advertisements. Their frequency suggests that university job advertisements are moving towards financial job advertisements.

The frequency already seems to show the convergence of university job advertisements with financial job advertisements, but it is necessary to look into the subcategories of action and attribution, both in terms of frequency and linguistic features. The sections that follow expand on the comparison of action and attribution in financial job advertisements in relation to university job advertisements.

7.3.1 Action

There are seven categories of action that employer organizations are construed as performing. These are: 1) *recruiting*, 2) *work*, 3) *promising work conditions*, 4) *financing*, 5) *creating/ developing*, 6) *requiring* and 7) *urging contact*. While the first six categories have already appeared in the university job data set, the final category only occurs in the financial job data set, and thus to avoid much repetition only this category will be explained in detail.

Recruiting

The first category is *recruiting*. Examples from each data set are shown below and frequency from all four data sets is provided in Figure 7-7.

Ex.65 Long established London Stockbrokers with extensive mining business ***requires Analyst*** *capable of converting technical reports and economic trends [...] (F1972 12)*

Ex.66 To handle our steadily expanding business we ***are seeking a young executive*** *aged between 27 and 32 with several years experience. [sic] (F1974 12)*

Ex.67 Alexander Black Recruitment ***is urgently looking for a Quant Manager*** *to join our high profile client. (F1970s 1781)*

Ex.68 We are one of Europe's most successful hedge funds and ***seek a bright developer*** *to join our technology teams based in Oxford. (F2010 2303)*

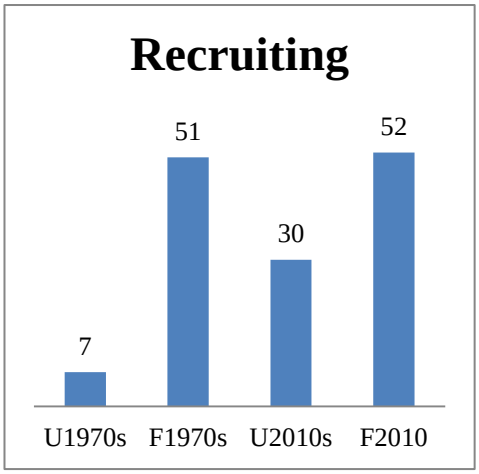


Figure 7-7 Frequency of *recruiting* across four data sets

The frequency of *recruiting* indicates that university job advertisements are becoming more like financial job advertisements. While the frequency of *recruiting* remains almost the same in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements, it dramatically increases in 2010s university job advertisements. Another observation is the phrases used to express recruitment activities in financial job advertisements, which are shown in Table 7-9.

1970s	**2010**
(BE) + SEEK (5)	(BE) + SEEK (15)
is searching for	(BE) + searching for (2)
seek + to V (appoint, recruit)	are in the position to hire
wish to + V (appoint 7, make an appointment)	BE + looking for (14)
offer + career related words (2)	BE + looking to V (recruit 4, hire 8, add 2)
need (8)	recruit + (for) (2)
BE + looking for (10)	have + vacancies (2)/ opportunities (2)
REQUIRE (7)	
N + is required	
invite applications	
have vacancies / opportunities (2)	
aims to fill this position	
intend to create a new executive position	

Table 7-9 Words and phrases used to express recruitment activity in financial job advertisements

From Table 7-9, it can be seen that there is less variation in the 2010 financial job advertisements. Thus the 2010 financial job advertisements have become more formulaic when it comes to phrasing recruitment activity. This is in sharp contrast to the university job advertisements where the way *recruiting* is phrased in the 2010s data contains more variety than in the 1970s data. In addition, the use of the word 'seek' surges in the 2010 financial job advertisements (15 in 2010s vs 6 in 1970s). There is also an increasing deployment of the modality of inclination 'looking to'. This modality implies the emotional involvement of employer organizations, suggesting their enthusiasm and volition. The use of progressive aspect portrays the dynamism of the statement, which in turn strengthens the enthusiasm and desire for new members of the organization.

Furthermore, the 2010 financial job advertisements stop using 'REQUIRE' and 'wish to appoint'. The lemma 'REQUIRE' sounds imposing as it seems to assume the authority of the initiator and thus implies the power differential between employer organizations and applicants. The fact that 2010 financial job advertisements do not use 'REQUIRE' for *recruiting* shows the tendency to avoid linguistic features to imply power differences, concurring with the democratization trend in language change (Leech et al., 2009).

The most prominent phraseological patterns are 1) (BE) + SEEK and 2) (BE) + looking for. These patterns are dynamic due to their progressive aspect and because they are material process which requires an object. The words 'seek' and 'looking for' also focus on the desire of the organization for a new member. The dynamism of these phrases reinforces the enthusiasm of organizations.

When comparing these phraseological patterns with those identified in university job advertisements, I find that the 2010s university job advertisements share more similarities

with financial job advertisements than 1970s university job advertisements do. Table 7-10 shows the phrases that are shared in each pair of data sets.

data sets	**phrases**	**no. of shared tokens**
U1970s vs F1970s	wish to appoint + N invites application offer + N	3
U1970s vs F2010	-	0
U2010s vs F1970s	SEEK to + V Wish to appoint + N BE + looking for Recruit + N HAVE + N related to vacancy Invites application (BE) + SEEK	7
U2010s vs F2010	BE + seeking to + V recruit + N BE + looking to + V BE + looking for + N HAVE + N related to vacancy (BE) + SEEK	6

Table 7-10 Identical phrases for *recruiting*

If we diachronically compare the degree of similarity between university and financial job advertisements, it is evident that the 2010s university job advertisements are more similar to financial job advertisements than 1970s university job advertisements. Also, from the table, it can be seen that the 2010s university job advertisements are more similar to 1970s financial job advertisements (7 identical phrases) than 2010 financial job advertisements (6 identical phrases). Looking at individual phrases, it seems that the changes in university job advertisements follow the trend of financial job advertisements. While formal phrases such as 'invites application' and 'wish to appoint' still remain in the 2010s university job advertisements, they have disappeared from the 2010 financial job advertisements. The 1970s financial job advertisements contain much more variety than 1970s university job

advertisements, and phrases that are dynamic such as '(BE) + looking for', '(BE) + SEEK' and 'SEEK to + V' already feature in 1970s financial job advertisements but are only emerging in 2010s university job advertisements. Since the 1970s, financial job advertisements, therefore, already display the enthusiasm, volition and strong desire for new members – a feature absent from the 1970s university job advertisements. Moreover, the pattern 'HAVE + OPPORTUNITY' occurs in 2010s university job advertisements, 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements, indicating that this persuasive language derives from business discourse practice.

Working

The second group of action is *working*. Examples are provided below and the frequency of this action across four data sets is shown in Figure 7-8.

Ex.69 The subsidiary, located in North London, ***is responsible for*** *its own operations [...] (F1971 12)*

Ex.70 Charterhouse ***provides*** *merchant banking, investment, insurance broking and many other financial services to industry and the general public. (F1973 6)*

Ex.71 We ***work*** *with our clients in advisory, assurance, corporate finance and tax. (F2010 0575)*

Ex.72 We ***provide*** *our high profile clients with the following range of services [...] (F2010 1032)*

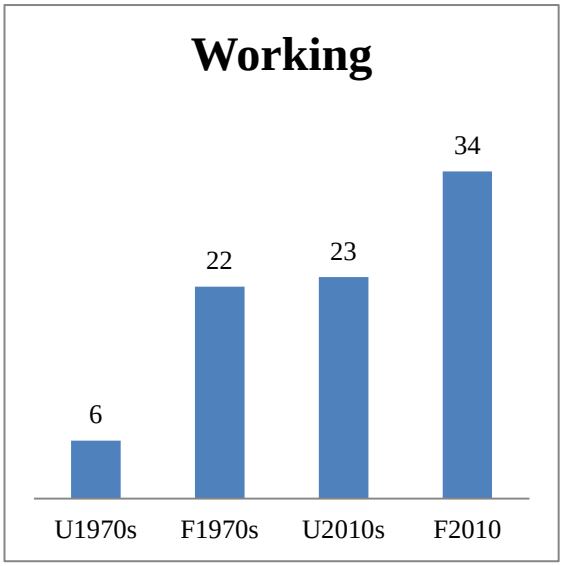


Figure 7-8 Frequency of *working* across four data sets

From the figure, it is apparent that university job advertisements have become more like financial job advertisements. The instances where university job advertisements construct the employer organization as working rise from 6 to 23, which is an 283.3 per cent increase, and moves slightly higher than 1970s financial job advertisements and closer to 2010 financial job advertisements. This means that the 1970s financial job advertisements already present the organization as working relatively frequently (22 instances), whereas in the 1970s university job advertisements this is comparatively rare (6 instances).

In addition to frequency, an analysis of words and phrases that belong to this category can yield insights as well. Table 7-11 shows the words and phrases that belong to *working* action in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements.

Words/phrases	F1970s	F2010
operate	2	2
sell	2	0
provide	10	10
offer	2	4
acting as	0	2
cover	0	5
supply	0	2
WORK	0	5
deliver	0	2
contains	1	0
employs	1	0
uses	1	0
is responsible for	1	0
work-related N. + is	1	0
drive	0	1
make a difference	0	1

Table 7-11 Words/phrases for *working* in financial job advertisements

From Table 7-11, it can be seen that both data sets use ‘provide’ more frequently than other words (10 times in both data sets). The other words that appear in both data sets are ‘operate’ and ‘offer’. The words which are also salient in the financial job corpus, occurring more than four times, include ‘operate’, ‘cover’, ‘work’ and ‘offer’.

Comparing with university job data, there are more similarities between 2010s university job advertisements and financial job advertisements than between 1970s university job advertisements and financial job advertisements. While the 1970s university job advertisements share the word ‘provide’, the 2010s university job advertisements share the words ‘provide’, ‘offer’, ‘cover’ and ‘work’. The word ‘provide’ appears in university job advertisements due to the role of support services. The word ‘offer’ in university job advertisements refers to offering courses. By using this word with courses, the university presents education as a service it offers. And thus the word ‘offer’ seems to present academic institutions as service providers.

The word ‘cover’ indicates the scope of work but it has a promotional use as well. This is because a wide scope of work representing the specializations of employer organizations shows how influential they are. As shown in the examples below, the scope of work presented in job advertisements is wide with evaluative terms such as ‘specialist’ in example 73 and ‘spectrum’ in example 74.

*Ex.73 Our **specialist** sectors cover- TMT (Technology, Media and Telecom) – M&A/ Mergers and Acquisitions [...] (F2010 0682)*

*Ex.74 We **cover the spectrum** of contemporary biological sciences (U2010s 1/264)*

Financing

Financing only appears in 2010 financial job advertisements and all instances are shown below. In all the instances, the word ‘invest’ is used. This strengthens the argument I made in Section 7.2 that the word ‘investment’ found in 2010s university job advertisements is business-oriented.

*Ex.75 We **invest** across the entire capital structure [...] (F2010 2228)*

*Ex.76 The UK team is a long only fund, **investing** primarily in blue chip UK companies. (F2010 2758)*

Promising work conditions

Examples from the *promising work conditions* group are shown below. A frequency comparison across four data sets is presented in Figure 7-9.

*Ex.77 This rapidly expanding company **offers tremendous scope for personal growth** in both experience and financial terms (F1972 13)*

*Ex.78 The group has an enviable record of profitable growth and **offers a wide and attractive range of career prospects**. (F1974 1)*

*Ex.79 We can **offer you an exciting, fast-paced working environment, a culture of mutual respect** [...] (F2010 455)*

*Ex.80 […] we'll r**ecognise your commitment and reward your efforts accordingly**. (F2010 1325)*

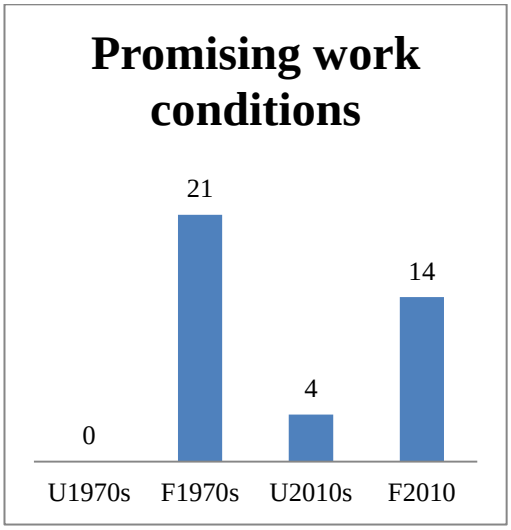


Figure 7-9 Frequency of *promising work conditions* across four data sets

From the figure, it is apparent that this category has been predominant in financial job advertisements since the 1970s. Given that this category indicates what the applicants can expect to get in return, it is associated with a hard-sales technique (Cook, 1992). In the 1970s university job advertisements, *promising work conditions* is not identified, but in 2010s university job advertisements it occurs four times. This action seems infrequent but it may well be phrased from the applicants' viewpoint. In fact, in Sections 7.4 and 7.5, it appears that applicants are portrayed as benefiting from the organization. The emergence of this action in university job advertisements indicates a sales-oriented characteristic imported into university recruitment discourse.

Creating/developing

Another group is *creating/ developing*. Examples are provided below and its frequency across the four corpora is shown in Figure 7-10.

*Ex.81 We **are expanding rapidly** throughout the UK […] (F1971 7).*

*Ex.82 We **are continuing to expand** our fast-growing life sales organization [...] (F1973 10)*

*Ex.83 My client, a leading investment bank, **is currently expanding** its Liquidity & Structured Risk Department (F2010 1)*

*Ex.84 Since then our office **has grown** to over 800 employees across 5 divisions. (F2010 1665)*

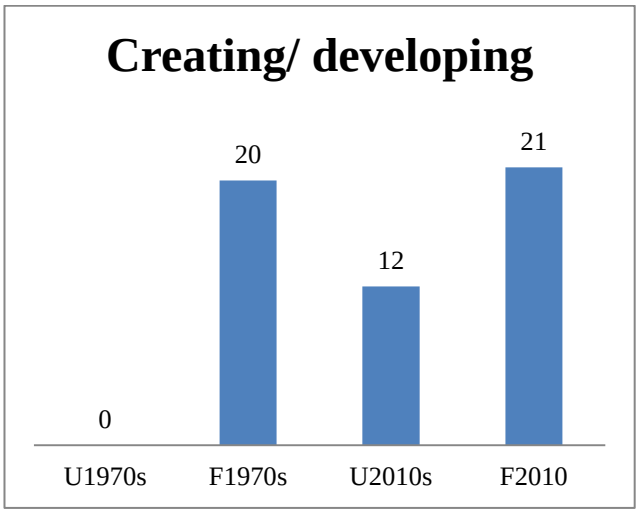


Figure 7-10 Frequency of *creating/ developing* across four data sets

From the figure, it can be seen that this category only appears in business and 2010s university job advertisements. The absence of *creating/ developing* from the 1970s university job advertisements suggests that this feature of self-promotion in terms of growth is an influence of business discourse.

Requiring

The *Requiring* category is used to mitigate requirements, just as in university job advertisements. The mitigation is done through framing requirements as interest or preference. There are 2 instances in 1970s business job advertisement and 11 instances in 2010 financial job advertisements. Both instances from the 1970s data and examples of 2010s data are shown below.

Ex.85 [...] you can expect rapid promotion because we're growing fast and ***will need*** *all the help you can give us [...] (F1973 3)*

Ex.86 In particular, our client ***requires*** *someone who has the maturity to realize that the corner-stone of [...] (F1974 5)*

Ex.87 We ***are looking for*** *individuals who can demonstrate real impact within business (F2010 1032)*

Ex.88 They ***are interested in meeting with*** *people who will have a background as follows: [...] (F2010 2758)*

In example 85, the requirement is within the cluster of *promising work conditions,* as in 'you can expect rapid promotion', and *creating/ developing,* as in 'we're growing fast'. This statement presupposes that applicants are competent and has the implication that successful applicants will play an important role in a great organization and be rewarded accordingly. As a consequence, this instance of *requiring* is not imposing. Instead, it is a laudatory statement to potential applicants. In example 86, on the other hand, the word 'require' is used and puts an imposition on applicants.

In the 2010 financial job advertisements, the most frequent pattern is 'we are looking for + REQUIREMENT', which occurs 7 times (63.6 per cent). This pattern has an overlap with the phrases used in *recruiting*. I consider the phrase 'we are looking for' a requirement when *recruiting* action has been stated earlier in the job advertisement. This overlap blurs the distinction between the two groups and may therefore background the imposition put on potential applicants. The last example shows an instance where *requirement* is framed as interest – a feature which also appears in 2010s university job advertisements. Figure 7-11 shows the frequency of *requiring* across four data sets.

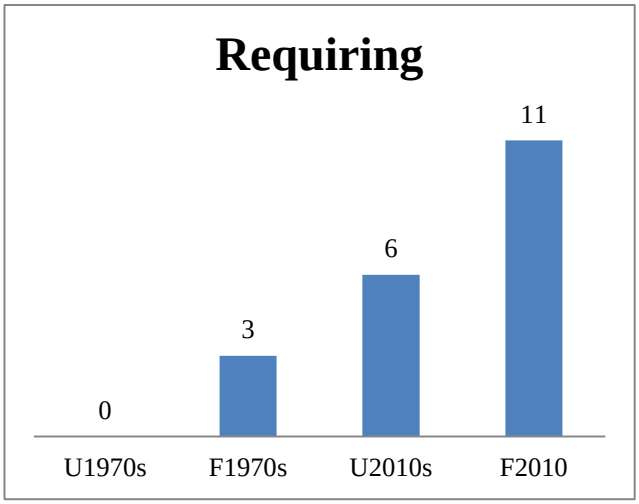


Figure 7-11 Frequency of *requiring* across four data sets

Apparently, *requiring* has occurred in financial job advertisements since the 1970s but is absent from 1970s university job advertisements. This feature shows a move towards hiding an imposition on the reader because *requiring* is used to mitigate requirements. From the figure, it appears that university job advertisements follow the pre-existing trend in financial job advertisements. However, looking at the linguistic feature of this category, I find that university job advertisements have not gone as far as mixing phrases from *recruiting* with *requiring* which is common in 2010 financial job advertisements.

Urging contact

The final category of action is *urging contact*. Here employer organizations directly solicit a response from potential applicants. Examples are given below.

*Ex.89 We **would like to hear from** you. (F1973 10)*

*Ex.90 Please contact us and send a copy of your cv, so that we **may discuss** this exciting opportunity with yourself. (F2010 2059)*

*Ex.91 the business are [sic] extremely keen to fill this position so we **urge** any suitable candidates to make an application ASAP (F2010 2992)*

In example 89, *urging contact* is a direct solicitation of response. In example 96 from the 2010s data, the advertisement encourages further discussion in a persuasive way, as shown by the word 'exciting opportunity'. In the last example, the advertisement uses a pressure tactic by using the words 'urge' and 'ASAP'. Considering the AIDA principle in marketing theory (Strong, 1925), this action, which the employer organization is construed as taking, is about encouraging the customer to take action, the final stage of advertising which is missing in university job advertisements. This action highlights the desire of the organization to hire a new member and shows a trace of marketing practice in a traditionally non-sales-oriented genre of job advertisements.

Figure 7-12 summarizes the frequency of action that employer organizations are construed as performing across four data sets.

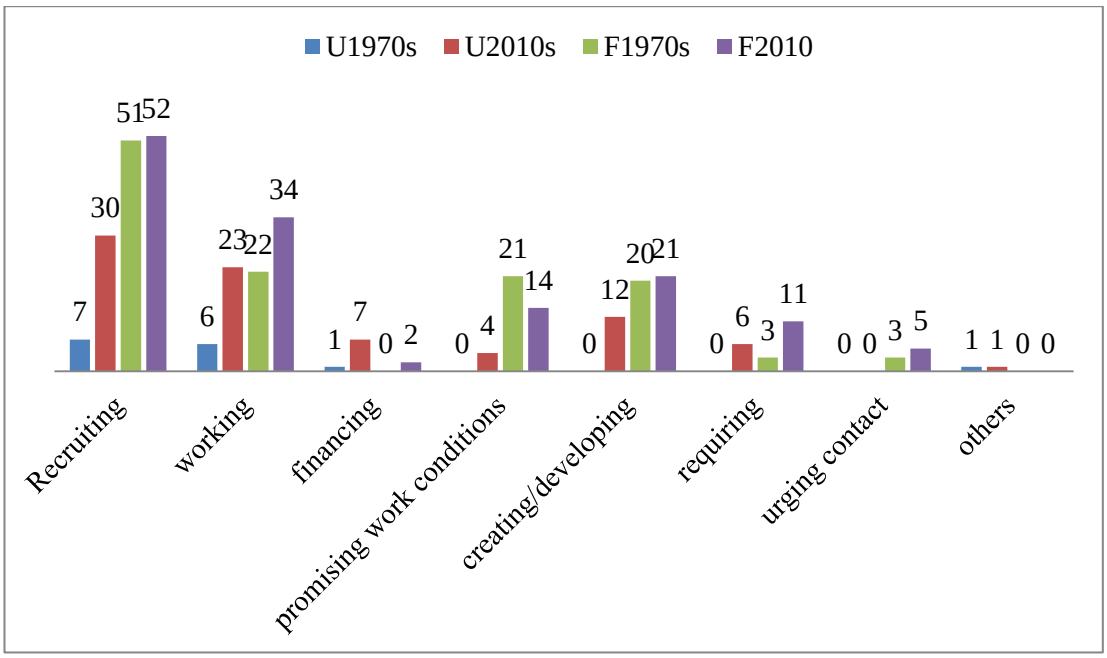


Figure 7-12 Actions that organizations are construed as performing across four data sets

It is obvious that employer organizations are rarely mentioned in 1970s university job advertisements. In contrast, in the rest of the data sets, employer organizations are referred to very frequently, indicating an emphasis on discursively constructing an institutional identity. There are more varieties of action in 2010s university job advertisements and both financial job data sets than in 1970s university job advertisements. Some of these actions have a promotional and persuasive tone. What is still missing from 2010s university job advertisements but appears in financial job data is *urging contact*. This perhaps shows that universities do not oversell a job by presenting themselves as directly pressing potential applicants to apply for the job. Also, during the analysis of linguistic features, I have found that university job advertisements do not mix phrases from different kinds of actions, namely, *recruiting* and *requiring*. In spite of these marginal differentials, the overall patterns still indicate that the discursive practices of universities are transforming towards the discursive practices of business organizations.

7.3.2 Attribution

This section elaborates on the attributes of employer organizations in financial job advertisements and compares the findings with those of university job advertisements. There are six categories of attribution which occur in financial job advertisements: 1) *part of organization/ organizational classification*, 2) *credentials*, 3) *plan/mission/commitment*, 4) *equal opportunity*, 5) *legal status* and 6) *location*.

Part of a group/ organizational classification

The first category is *part of a group/ organizational classification*. Examples from each data set are provided below. The frequency across four data sets is shown in Figure 7-13.

There is not much variation across the four data sets but the frequency is the highest in the 2010 financial job advertisements

*Ex.92 Our clients are a **London Clearing Bank** with merchant banking business [...] (F1972 2)*

*Ex.93 We are **a company within the Hill Samuel Group** [...] (F1973 15)*

*Ex.94 Barclays Wealth is the **wealth management division of Barclays** [...] (F2010 1325)*

*Ex.95 Hays Banking is **a trading division of Hays Specialist Recruitment Limited** [...] (F2010 2509)*

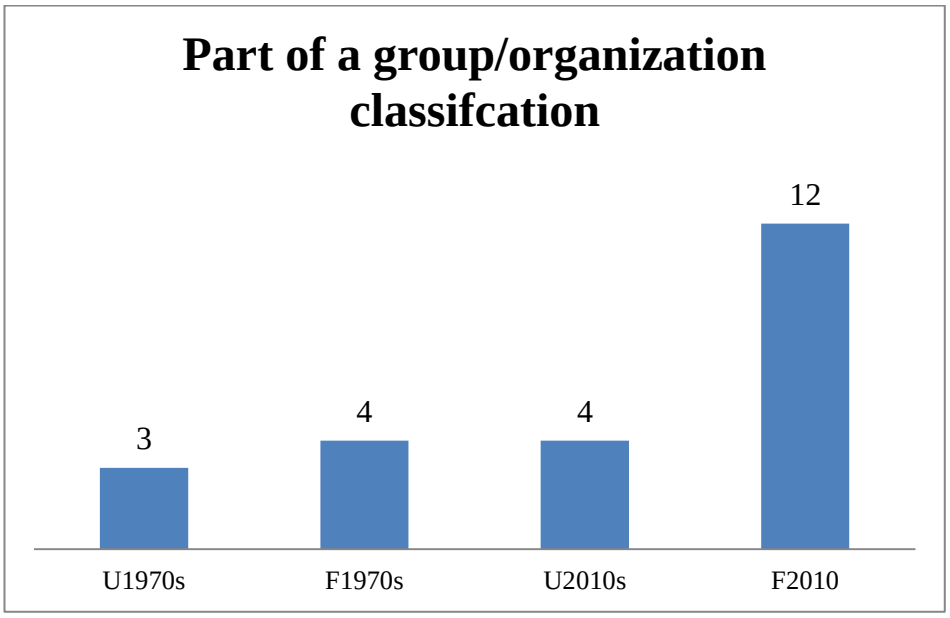


Figure 7-13 Frequency of *part of a group/organizational classification* across four data sets

Credentials

The second category, *credentials*, is the most salient attribute ascribed to business organizations (39 in 1970s financial job advertisements and 66 in 2010 financial job advertisements). Given that this category is an indicator of self-promotion in job advertisements, the saliency of *credentials* in both data sets shows that financial job advertisements were promotional even in the past. This is in sharp contrast to university job

advertisements in which *credentials* becomes salient in the 2010s data, as shown in Figure 7-14, below.

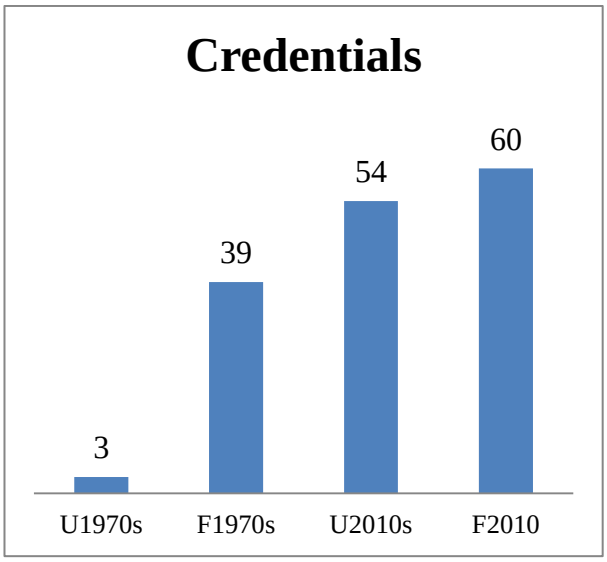


Figure 7-14 Frequency of *credentials* across four data sets

From the figure, it can be seen that in the 1970s university job advertisements, *credentials* is almost non-existent but the frequency surges in 2010s university job advertisements. This graph consequently shows that 2010s university job advertisements have become more promotional, more like financial job advertisements, which have been promotional since the 1970s.

Moving on to the linguistic features of this category, examples of *credentials* are shown below.

*Ex.96 We are **the world's largest** international bank [...] (F1974 6)*

*Ex.97 We are **an expanding** firm of City Life Brokers [...] (F1972 6)*

*Ex.98 Parker Fitzgerald is **a leading** Consulting & Professional Services firm (F2010 217)*

*Ex.99 Our investment bank is **one of the world's top global** investment bank and securities firms [...] (F2010 1267)*

Example 96 shows an instance where the employer organization is evaluated based on its size. Example 97 highlights the growth of the company. Example 98 conveys the competitiveness of the company while example 99 indicates its rank as shown by the word 'top'. Apart from these evaluative resources, the employer organizations are described in terms of stability, innovativeness, reputation/ achievement and establishment.

Apart from evaluative resources, another striking feature of *credentials* is the use of aspect and different kinds of process types to amplify the positive evaluation of employer organizations. To begin with, perfective aspect is used, as shown in the four examples below. The use of this aspect entails a duration in which the company has the stated attributes. If we take the first example, for instance, the company is not just developing now but it has been developing and growing considerably throughout the past two years. Or it may stress the achievement of action as in the second and fourth examples.

*Ex.100 Their rate of development & growth, in the past 2 years, **has been** considerable [...] (F1971 4).*

*Ex.101 We are the world's largest international bank and **have got** there because we believe in having the best designed operations. (F1974 6)*

*Ex.102 The firm **has been** hugely successful in it [sic] previous years [...] (F2010 988)*

*Ex.103 Morgan Stanley **has earned** a worldwide reputation for the excellence of its advice and execution in financial markets. (F2010 1665)*

Furthermore, like university job advertisements, the financial job advertisements use mental process when describing the *credentials* of employer organizations. Examples are provided below. It occurs only once in the 1970s financial job advertisements so only one instance is provided.

*Ex.104 **Acknowledged** as one of the leaders in the leasing market [...] their rate of development & growth, in the past 2 years, has been considerable. (F1971 4)*

*Ex.105 We **are known** as a strong credit shop with over 25 people on the investment team [...] (F2010 228)*

*Ex.106 The FI Cash Management sales team **has seen** a period of extensive growth over the past 5 years [...] (F2010 2509)*

In the first two examples, the cognitive mental processes 'acknowledged' and 'known' are used and the employer organization is the phenomenon, while the senser is unknown. As argued earlier in Section 7.2.2, the use of this pattern shifts the claim to the unknown senser, giving the impression that the general public assigns this attribute to the company. In the first example, it is important to note that the evaluative claim is in a non-finite clause in a thematic position. Accordingly, the evaluative claim is taken for granted, making it stronger. In the third example, the phrase 'has seen + GROWTH' also appears in university job advertisements, and as mentioned in Section 7.2.2 it is deployed to strengthen the evaluative meaning and often used in the business domain.

Finally, the material process is also used. Examples are presented below:

*Ex.107 The group **employs 10,000 staff in the UK** and has assets of over £500m. (F1972 4)*

*Ex.108 We **have shown** our ability **to draw level** with the old-established well-known companies (1971 10)*

*Ex.109 We **have built** a world-class reputation for quality and service [...] (F2010 1665)*

*Ex.110 They **compete** with the bulge-bracket banks (F2010 0064)*

In example 107, the word 'employ' seems to suggest a working activity; however, due to such a high number of staff and the next clause which boasts about assets, this sentence establishes the credentials of the company by referring to its size.

In example 109, the phrase 'built a world-class reputation' is a metaphor. Given that reputation cannot be physically built, a more congruent form would be 'we have a world-class reputation'. The word 'built' concretizes its reputation and increases dynamism by the substitution of a relational process by a material process. This phrase also shares a

resemblance to the findings of how academic institutions use the phrase 'building on our reputation' when promoting its credentials, as shown in Section 7.2.2.

In examples 108 and 110, the advertisements proclaim the credentials of the employer organization by referring to their competitors. This strategy shows aggressive and outright competition as the company directly sets up an opponent and states that it is as good as it. This strategy is absent from university job advertisements. Given that this strategy appears in 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements, it is argued that reference to competitors is an existing promotional strategy associated with business discourse that universities do not adopt in their recruitment discourse

Plan/ mission/ commitment

Another kind of attribute is *plan/ mission/ commitment*. There is one instance in the 1970s data and one in the 2010s data. As such, both of them are presented below and both refer to a plan for growth.

Ex.111 ***Our long-range plans*** *are such that we will be well ahead of the field by mid-1972. (F1971 10)*

Ex.112 They have ambitious ***growth plans*** *in Europe [...] (F2010 2992)*

Equal opportunity

The *equal opportunity* attribute only appears in the 2010s data. There are six occurrences and two excerpts are provided below. In both examples, a material process is deployed and this attribute is phrased in terms of welcome in the first example, and an aspiration that employer organizations try to achieve as in the second example.

Ex.113 Santander ***welcomes*** *applications from* ***all sections of the community****. (F2010 2617)*

Ex.114 Pure Recruitment Group ***aims to promote diversity and equal opportunity*** *through its work. (F2010 2860)*

Legal status

Legal status occurs eight times but only in the 2010 financial job advertisements. They are all realized with the word 'register', 'authorise' and 'regulate' and all have a passive construction, as shown in the two excerpts below. It seems that legal status accentuates the credibility of the employer organization. This category occurs once in the 2010s university job advertisements.

*Ex.115 Barclays Bank PLC is **registered** in England and **authorized** and **regulated** by the Financial Services Authority. (F2010 384)*

*Ex.116 Aeron is **authorized** and **regulated** by the Financial Services Authority. (F2010 2814)*

Location

The final category of attribution is *location*. This category appears three times in the 1970s financial job advertisements and five times in the 2010 financial job advertisements. It occurs two times in university job advertisements. All instances in the 1970s data and two from the 2010s data are given below.

*Ex.117 The company's new head office, which is one of the most advanced in design in Europe, **is situated** within easy reach of major cities, yet close to Yorkshire [...] (F1974 7)*

*Ex.118 [...] all accounts operated by a well established and developing British corporation, **based out of London**. (F1974 14)*

*Ex.119 Our offices **are located in** Glasgow's city centre in the heart of international Financial Services District. (F2010 1665)*

*Ex.120 Our client is an Electronic Brokerage **based** in London. (F2010 2576)*

While in examples 118 and 120, *location* seems to be informational, in the other two *location* is used as a persuasive tool. In an example from the 1970s data, *location* is used to convey convenient transportation. The sentence itself is reminiscent of tourism promotional discourse. Consequently, I would argue that it is a trace of interdiscursivity where tourism discourse is mixed with recruitment discourse and this hybridity serves a persuasive function.

In example 119, the location here seems to show the power, competitiveness and significance of the organization, because the organization has to be reputable and influential to be located in such an area. I think it also implies that applicants will be involved in international financial services activities and have good professional development prospects.

Figure 7-15 summarizes the frequency of attributions that are given to employer organizations across the four data sets.

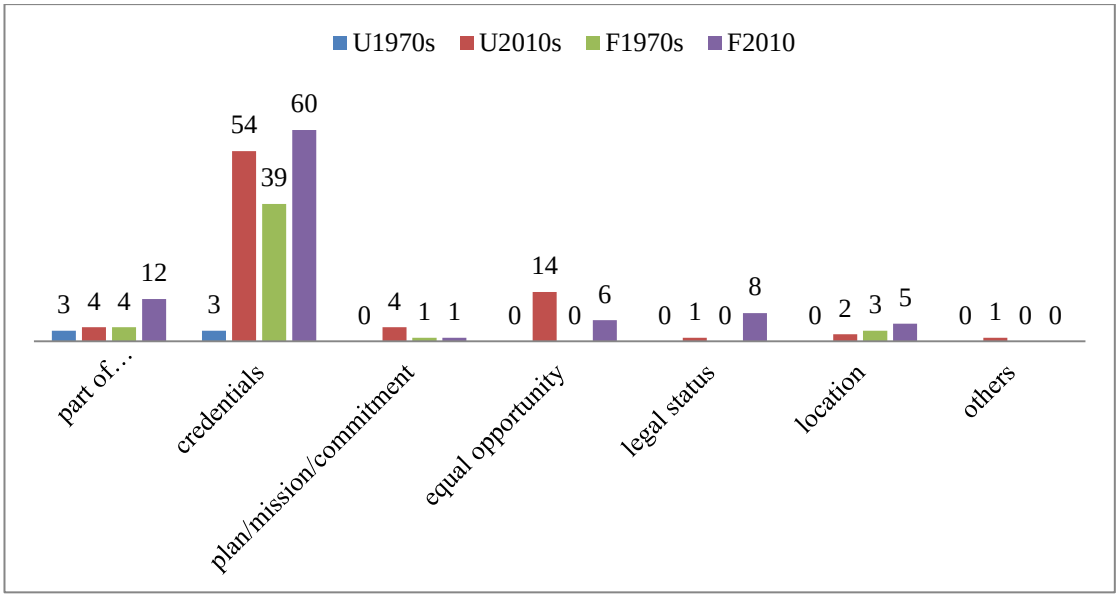


Figure 7-15 Attributions of employer organizations across four data sets

There is an evident trace that universities adopt promotional orientation from business discourse in the representation of institutional identity as the frequency of *credentials* move very close to that of financial job advertisements. Similar linguistic features, namely, perfective aspect, metaphor, the use of mental and material processes to intensify the positive evaluation of organization are also identified. However, while the financial job advertisements refer to competitors when claiming their *credentials*, university job advertisements do not use this strategy. Furthermore, the frequency of *equal opportunity* is much higher in university job advertisements (14 vs 6), which in turn indicates that universities place more emphasis on

social equality values. Conversely, the frequency of *legal status* is much higher in the financial job advertisements (8 vs 1), suggesting that credibility is more critical to business organizations. In consequence, it is possible to conclude that while universities adopt a sales-oriented presentation of organizational image, it also has different values. Therefore, universities do not always imitate the identity and discourse practice of business organizations but there is room for developing their own identity while appropriating business discourse.

7.4 APPLICANTS IN UNIVERSITY JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

This section reports on the analysis of applicant representation in university job advertisements. The analytical framework is largely the same as that used in the analysis of employer organization representation. The focus is on the actions that applicants are construed as performing. These actions are classified according to the semantic groups to which they belong. These groups are not based on any existing framework but reflect my decision as to how these actions should be sensibly grouped. However, there is a modification to the analysis. There is no division between *actions* and *attributions* as in analysis of employer organization representation. This is because the attributes of applicants are solely related to requirements. Furthermore, this category overlaps with *actions*, as will be discussed below. Given that there is only one category of attribute and some overlap, *attribution* is not suitable to form a category and therefore it is subsumed under *actions*.

Table 7-12 shows the number of occurrences of actions that applicants are construed as performing.

	U1970s	**F1970s**	**U2010s**	**F2010s**
processes indicating actions/attributes	93	246	395	318

Table 7-12 Frequency of actions that applicants are construed as performing

From Table 7-12, it is evident that the 2010s university job advertisements have a higher frequency. This suggests that applicants are mentioned more in the recruitment discourse in 2010s. Apart from frequency, it is important to elucidate the semantic category of actions that applicants are construed as performing. From both data sets, the actions are: 1) *performing duties*, 2) *possessing qualifications/ attributes*, 3) *seeking a job*, 4) *joining*, 5) *benefiting* and 6) *contacting*. In what follows, I expand on these categories and salient linguistic features within each one.

Performing duties

Performing duties elaborates on the job specification that successful candidates are expected to execute once they are members of the relevant organization. In the 1970s university job advertisements there are 34 occurrences, whereas in the 2010s university job advertisements there are 114 occurrences of the *performing duties* category. Examples from each data set are provided below and the processes indicating duties are underlined.

Ex.121 The successful candidate may supervise research students and will assist in general [sic] *running of the institute and its information service. (U1971 1).*

Ex.122 Candidates must be willing to spend about one third of their time on Group research […] (U1973 2)

Ex.123 The successful candidates will also be expected to significantly enhance existing research groups […] (U2010s 1/1907)

Ex.124 The Department Administrator will provide operational support to ensure the effective and efficient operation […] (U2010s 1/1405)

Some key linguistic features of this category are the extensive use of modality and the words referring to applicants. In example 122, the modulation 'must', which indicates obligation, is used. On the other hand, in examples 121 and 123, the word 'will' which is more strongly associated with modalization is used, making the statement sound like a work scenario which follows a successful application, rather than an obligation imposed on

candidates as in the previous example. Furthermore, in example 124 the phrase 'will also be expected to' is an instance of grammatical metaphor of obligational modulation. The use of grammatical metaphor lessens the degree of imposition. Sometimes the duties are not modalized either because they are in a non-finite clause or are stated baldly in a finite clause. To illustrate this point more clearly, examples are given below. The processes indicating duties are underlined and modality is in bold.

- *Modalization*

*Ex.125 The postholder **will** assist in the activities of the Judicial Institute […] (U2010s 1/2526)*

- *Modulation*

*Ex.126 He **should** be ready to form his own opinion of how our service is run, capable of constructive criticism, and willing to express his conclusions convincingly. (U1974 7)*

- *Modulation grammatical metaphor*

*Ex.127 The successful candidate **will be required to** teach on departmental programmes […] (U1974 3)*

Non-finite

Ex.128 Reporting to the Deputy Director, this new post will support the overall administrative functioning of the department […] (U2010s 1/1405)

- *Non-modalized finite*

*Ex.129 […], Service Desk staff **are also responsible for** ensuring there is a build-up of knowledge management documents […] (U2010s 1622)*

Table 7-13 shows the frequency of each category and some phrases indicating each one.

Linguistic feature	phrases	U1970s	U2010s
modalization	will, may	15	73
modulation	must, should	4	0
modulation grammatical metaphor	will be expected to, will be required to	10	24
non-finite	present/past participle, infinitival clause	4	15
non-modalized finite	are responsible for	1	2
total		34	114

Table 7-13 Frequency of modality used for *performing duties* category in university job advertisements

In the 1970s university job advertisements, there are 15 instances of modalization and 14 instances of modulation. In the 2010s university job advertisements, there are 73 instances of modalization and 24 instances of modulation, all of which involve the use of grammatical metaphor. As such, it is apparent that the 2010s university job advertisements favour the use of modalization more than the 1970s university job advertisements do, thereby showing an attempt to mitigate imposition and the power differential between employer organizations and applicants. Another way of comparing is to investigate the proportion of each category and this is summarized in the pie charts below.

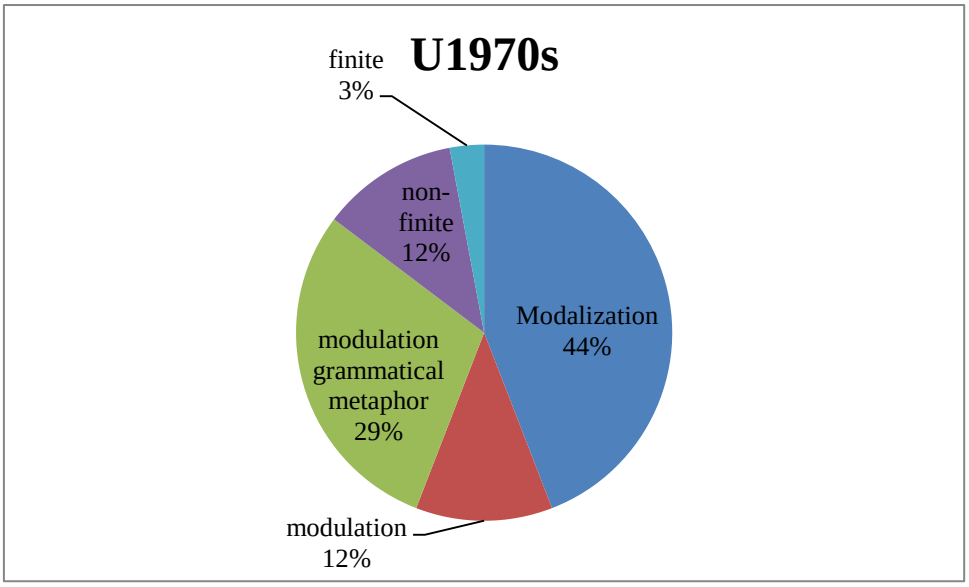


Figure 7-16 Proportion of modality in the *performing duties* category in 1970s university job advertisements

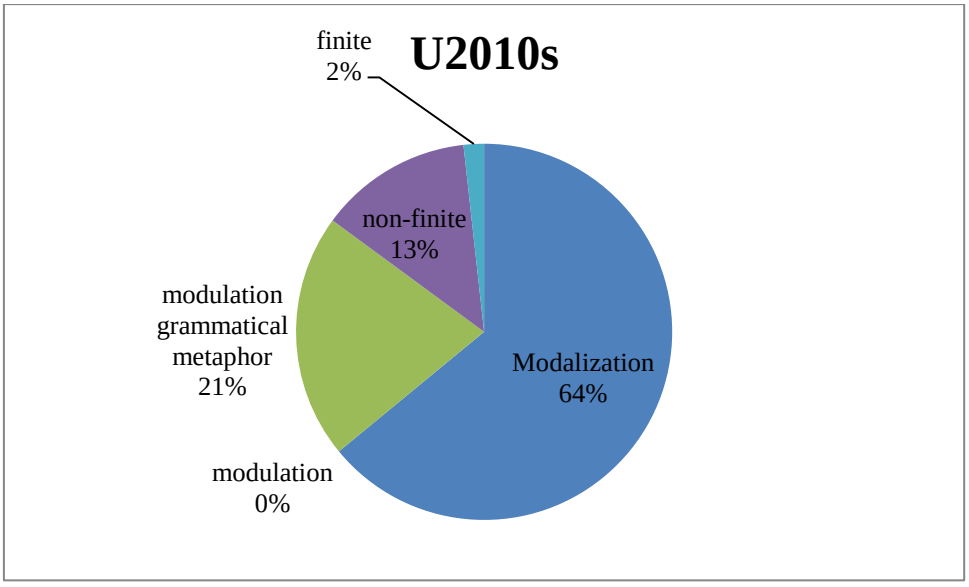


Figure 7-17 Proportion of modalities used in the *performing duties* category in 2010s university job advertisements

From Figures 7-16 and 7-17, it can be seen that modalization plays a much more important role in phrasing duties in the 2010s data (64 per cent) than in the 1970s data (44 per

cent). The proportion of obligational modulation drastically decreases in the 2010s data (41 per cent in the 1970s vs 21 per cent in the 2010s). These two pie charts show the move towards mitigating imposition and lowering the power relation in 2010s university job advertisements.

With regards to words referring to applicants, there are four categories: 1) *candidature*, 2) *personal pronouns*, 3) *position* and 4) *generic personal reference terms*. The first category positions an applicant as a candidate who is not yet accepted to be a member of the employer organization. However, sometimes the words 'successful candidates/ applicants' are used, construing a successful scenario. The second personalizes the interaction via the use of personal pronouns, mostly 'you' which directly addresses the applicants. This is a phenomenon called 'conversationalization' (Fairclough, 1994: 253). In some cases, however, personal pronouns are used merely as anaphoric terms. The third one is *position*, as shown in example 129 which has a rhetorical effect of painting a successful scenario in terms of what the applicants will do once they take up the post. The final category involves the use of generic terms such as 'one' and 'person'. To make this point clearer an illustrative example of each category is given below:

- *Candidature*

*Ex.130 The successful **candidate** will give support to Professor Chandra Lalwani in the Logistics Institute […] (U2010s 1266)*

- *Personal pronoun*

*Ex.131 As part of the role, **you** will also be expected to support the effective management and administration within the two Schools […] (U2010s 055)*

- *Pronoun used as anaphor*

*Ex.132 **S/he** will have direct responsibility for enhancing student employability, […] (U2010s 002)*

- *Position*

Ex.133 ***The Department Administrator*** *will provide operational support to ensure the effective and efficient operation of Academic Services. (U2010s 1/1405)*

- *Generic reference term*

Ex.134 The ***person*** *appointed will be responsible for the teaching of taxonomy (U1973 8)*

Table 7-14 shows the frequency of each category from each data set.

	U1970s	**U2010s**
candidature	10	18
personal pronoun	0	18
anaphor	2	3
position	11	30
generic	3	1
total	26	70

Table 7-14 Frequency of applicants' reference terms for *performing duties*

From the table there is an evident surge in the use of *personal pronouns* and *position* in the 2010s university job advertisements. The former seems to show the phenomenon of conversationalization, involving direct address to the audience via the personal pronoun ‘you’. The latter indicates the persuasiveness of job advertisements which paint a successful scenario for the reader. The figure below shows the proportion of each category and the picture corroborates this argument.

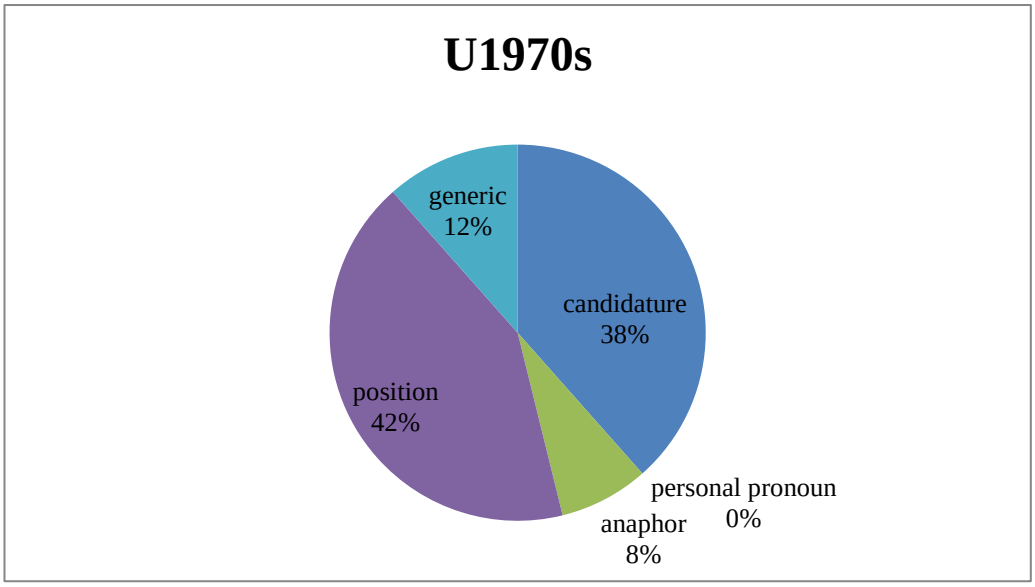


Figure 7-18 Proportion of applicants' reference terms in the *performing duties* category in 1970s university job advertisements

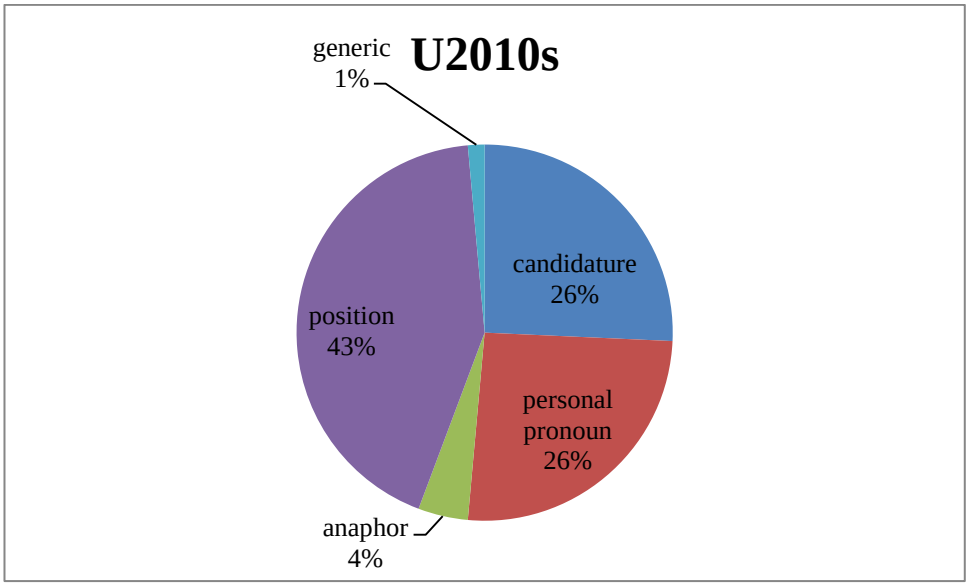


Figure 7-19 Proportion of applicants' reference terms in the *performing duties* in 2010s university job advertisements

Possessing qualifications/attributes

The second semantic category, *possessing qualifications/ attributes*, is a way of construing requirements. Applicants are the actors in the process and are located in a thematic position, rendering them the point of departure of the clause. There are 32 instances in the 1970s data and 148 in the 2010s data. Examples from each data set are shown below. The qualifications/ attributes are underlined.

Ex.135 He must have a realistic <u>understanding of university teaching and learning</u> […] (U1972 7)

Ex.136 Candidates should hold a good <u>science degree</u> and <u>doctorate</u> in relevant subjects. (U1974 10)

*Ex.137 Additionally**,** the applicants for the post of Senior Lecturer will have a strong <u>track record</u> in teaching and PhD student supervision […] (U2010s 496)*

Ex.138 It is essential that you have demonstrable <u>experience</u> of business planning and project management […] (U2010s 202)

There is a large overlap between the key linguistic features of *possessing qualifications/ attributes* and *performing duties*. Key linguistic features are the use of modality and applicant reference terms. The obligational modulations 'must' and 'should' are used in examples 135 and 136. The modalization 'will' is used in example 137. Also, in example 138, there is an instance of grammatical metaphor, 'it is essential that'. The deployment of grammatical metaphor distances the obligation by assigning agency to the dummy-it construction, thereby reducing the power differential between employer organizations and applicants. To make this point clear, an illustrative example from each category is shown below. Modality and non-finite and finite requirements are in bold. Table 7-15 shows the frequency of each category.

- *Modalization*

*Ex.139 Successful candidates **will** preferably have some good research outputs or have publications at an advanced stage (U2010s 1231)*

- *Modulation*

*Ex.140 Applicants **must** be graduates and have had administrative […] (U1974 2)*

- *Modulation grammatical metaphor*

*Ex.141 You **will be expected to** have research expertise […] (U2010s 055)*

- *Non-finite*

*Ex.142 **Educated** to degree level the candidate should have experience of e-library delivery within an educational environment. (U2010s 1/1868)*

- *Unmodalized finite*

*Ex.143 […] preference will be given to candidates who **are interested in** the application of quantitative methods to financial problems. (U1971 12)*

Linguistic feature	**phrases**	**U1970s**	**U2010s**
Modalization	will	4	72
modulation	need to, must, should	24	57
modulation grammatical metaphor	it is essential that, will be expected to	2	7
non-finite	present/past participle	1	4
finite	candidates who **are interested in** the […]	1	8
total		32	148

Table 7-15 Frequency of *possessing qualifications/attributes* in university job advertisements

The frequency indicates that the 2010s data mitigate *requirement* more than the 1970s data. Comparing the proportion of each category within each data set, as shown in Figures 7-20 and 7-21 below, also shows that modulation greatly decreases (75% in the 1970s and 38% in the 2010s) and modalization dramatically increases in the 2010s data (13% in the 1970s vs 49% in the 2010s data).

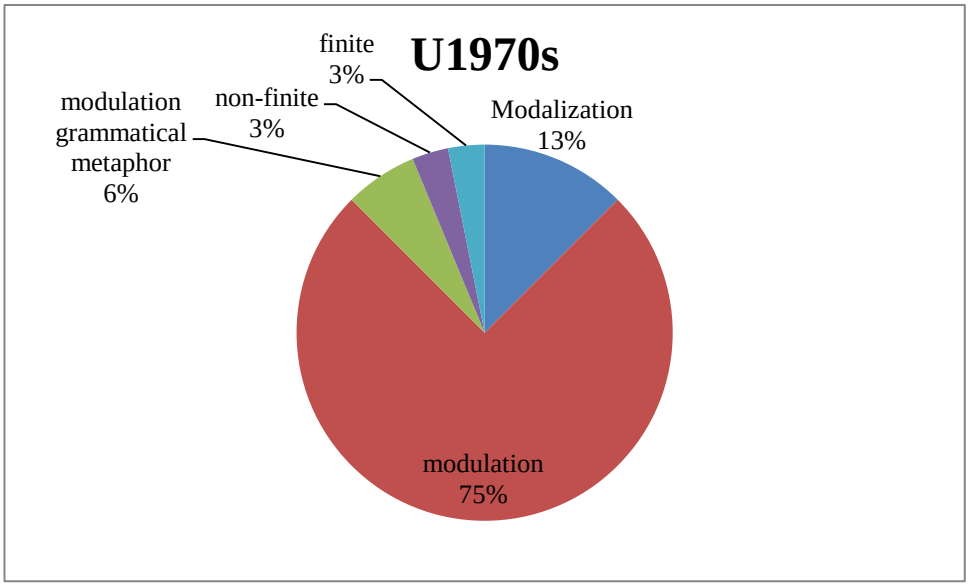


Figure 7-20 Proportion of modality for the *possessing qualifications/attributes* in 1970s university job advertisements

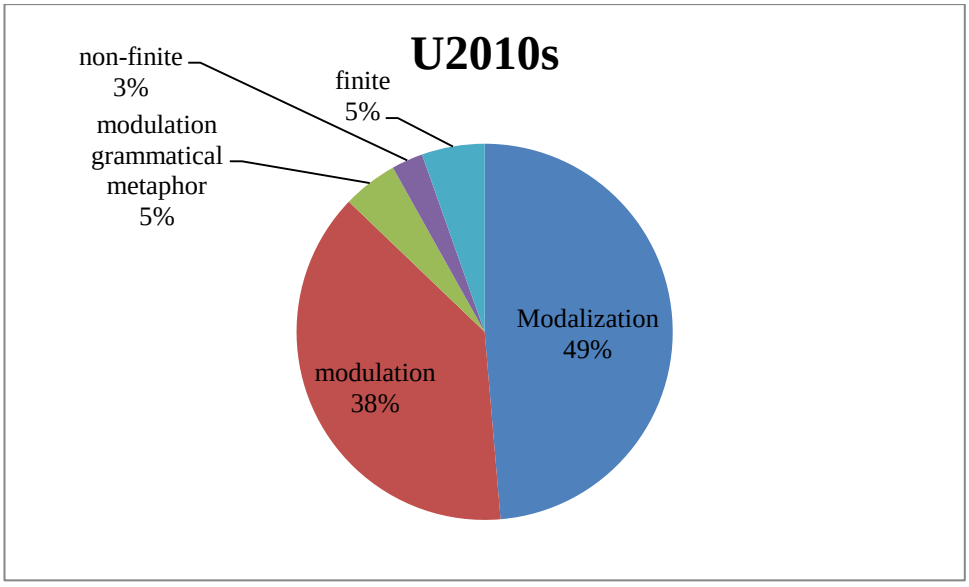


Figure 7-21 Proportion of modality for the *possessing qualifications/attributes* in 2010s university job advertisements

The applicant reference terms are similar to those identified in *performing duties*. Table 7-16 shows the frequency of this category in each data set.

	U1970s	U2010s
candidature	26	42
personal pronoun	0	42
anaphor	2	8
position	1	6
generic	2	3
total	31	101

Table 7-16 Frequency of applicants' reference terms for *possessing qualifications/attributes* in university job advertisements

Seeking a job

The *seeking a job* category constructs applicants as being on a search for a job. This category has a persuasive tone because it constructs applicants as wanting a job and the employer organization as having the job that applicants are looking for. The job therefore fulfils the desire of the applicants. There is one instance in the 1970s data and four in the 2010s data, indicating the increasing persuasiveness of university recruitment discourse. Examples are provided below with the processes indicating this meaning in bold.

*Ex.144 Applications for the above post are invited from graduates who **wish to make** a career in University Administration […] (U1973 7)*

*Ex.145 If you **are looking for** a challenging new role and take a proactive, innovative, result-oriented approach to your work then we would welcome an application from you. (U2010s 002)*

*Ex.146 […] the role of Experimental Medicine Business may just be what you **have been searching for**. (U2010s 202)*

Joining

Another group, *joinin*g, consists of the lemma JOIN, and here organizations are the goal. This semantic group is persuasive as it sometimes uses to promote the organization and in other cases to emphasize that the organization wants applicants to join them. Chaiyasuk

(2008) also argues that the word 'join' connotes partnership. There are six occurrences of this group in the 2010s data. Below are typical examples from my data.

*Ex.147 The successful candidates **will be joining** a world-renowned research group […] (U2010s 1/1645)*

*Ex.148 We are looking for someone to **join** this busy, friendly team (U2010s 4/53)*

Example 147 is a case where the organization promotes itself by stating that it is 'a world renowned research group'. However, it frames this proposition from the applicant's point of view and paints a successful scenario in which s/he will join this famous organization. The use of progressive aspect also increases the dynamism and portrays a high degree of certainty of this successful scenario. Example 148 shows the occurrence of this process which occurs adjacent to where the organization is construed as *recruiting*.

Benefiting

The fifth category is *benefiting*. This category can be conceptualized as a mirror image of *promising work conditions* (see Section 7.2.1). However, in this category applicants are the grammatical subject and located in a thematic position. Thus they are the point of departure of the clause. This category conveys a persuasive message to the applicants in terms of what they will receive once they are members of the employer organization. There are three occurrences in the 1970s data and four in the 2010s data. Excerpts are provided below, with the processes indicating benefiting in bold.

*Ex.149 Every encouragement would be given to the successful candidate to **obtain** further qualifications. (U1972 2)*

*Ex.150 The lecturer will **be** a member of the Senior Common Room with full dining rights. (U1973 5)*

*Ex.151 […] the successful candidate will also **have** a two-year fixed-term contract research assistant appointed and funded PhD studentship. (U2010s 1683)*

*Ex.152 Successful candidates **will receive** an award to cover both fees and maintenance for a three year period of study. (U2010s 1728)*

Contacting/ applying

The *contacting/ applying* group urges potential applicants to make further contact or to apply. There are also instances where advertisers use this category to indicate the procedure for making contact. Mostly this group is in imperative mood. The applicants do not directly appear but the imperative construction implies the presence of a null subject. There are 23 occurrences in the 1970s data and 119 in the 2010s data. Examples are provided below:

*Ex.153 **Please quote** reference 5029. [U1972 1]*

*Ex.154 **Please quote** reference THE. [U1973 3]*

*Ex.155 For further details on how to apply for a post at Warwick […], **please see** our jobs introduction page. (U2010s 472)*

*Ex.156 If you have a disability and **would like information** in a different format, please […] (U2010s 002)*

In the 2010s job university job advertisements (examples 155 and 156), advertisers ask the reader to find more information and suggest what they can do if they need assistance with making contact. The 1970s ones (examples 153 and 154), on the other hand, only focus on telling the reader to quote the reference number when making contact. Therefore, the 2010s university job advertisements present employer organizations as helpful and interested in potential applicants, while the 1970s advertisements present employer organizations as authoritative gate-keepers. Also, it should be noted that the 1970s advertisements do inform the reader how to contact the employer organization. However, applicants are absent from this communicative action, as shown in example 157 below. The absence of applicants and the use of obligational modulation make the advertisements impersonal and authoritative.

*Ex.157 Envelopes **should be** clearly marked "Application", and **should be** addressed to Mr. Andrew McPherson […] (U1972 1)*

In addition to these linguistic features, there is an emerging duty and words in the 2010s data which are an indication of market ideology in university recruitment discourse. Excerpts are provided below.

Ex.158 The Designer will be expected to […] assist with providing front-line web support and guidance to ***customers****. (U2010s 4/100)*

Ex.159 The ***Customer Service Advisors*** *will handle student enquires [sic] from a range of areas including student accommodation […] (U2010s 1414)*

Example 158 shows that the institution views themselves as service providers that serve customers. Example 159 shows that customer service is becoming an established function within universities because there is a post that deals with student services but it is labelled 'Customer Service Advisor'. These examples point to market ideology that has taken root and is becoming materialized, as such market ideology does not only affect discourse but also materiality.

In addition to these linguistic features, there are two kinds of requirements which emerge in the 2010s data and are directly related to marketization. Excerpts are shown below.

Ex.160 The successful candidate will have significant experience of ***front-line customer service delivery*** *[…] (U2010s 1414).*

Ex.161 Applicants at senior lecturer level will have proven success in significant ***grant capture*** *(U2010s 1/120).*

In example 160, applicants need to have experience of servicing customers and therefore they are expected to treat personnel within the university like customers. In fact, customer care/ service skills appear in other job advertisements as well and there are a total of three instances of customer service skills mentioned in job advertisements. This is an indication that universities view themselves as providing a service to customers. Example 161 shows that academics need to have the ability to generate financial income. This indicates competition and a new skill of academics: money-making. This is a conceptualization of

academics as entrepreneurs who generate financial resources for the organization. There are three instances where academic posts are expected to attract funding.

Table 7-17 summarizes the frequency of each semantic category in each data set.

	1970s	**2010s**
performing duties	34	114
possessing qualifications/attributes	32	148
seeking job	1	4
joining	0	6
benefiting	3	4
contacting/applying	23	119
total	93	395

Table 7-17 Frequency of actions that applicants are construed as performing in university job advertisements

From Table 7-17 it can be seen that there is a marked increase in three categories: *performing duties, possessing qualifications/ attributes* and *contacting/ applying*. The increase in the first two categories indicates that the advertisements are more explicit about the requirements and responsibilities of the position. The linguistic analysis of these two categories indicate a move towards lowering the power differential through grammatical metaphor and the use of modalization instead of modulation, and a move towards interacting informally with readers through the use of personal pronouns. Moreover, customer care skills and customer service emerge in the 2010s university job advertisements, thereby demonstrating that employer organizations view themselves as providing a service to students who are customers. As such, this is an indicator of market ideology in university recruitment discourse.

The substantial increase in the *contacting/ applying* category suggests that advertisements are more direct about persuading the reader to apply for the job. In some

cases, this category is used to portray the organization as being helpful to applicants who require assistance.

A category that only appears in 2010s university job advertisements is *joining.* This group, as discussed earlier, accentuates the desire of employer organizations for new members, connotes partnership and also promotes employer organizations. The emergence of this category in consequence indicates the promotional feature of 2010s university recruitment discourse.

7.5 APPLICANTS IN FINANCIAL JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

This section reports on the diachronic analysis of the representation of applicants in financial job advertisements and compares the analysis with that of university job advertisements. First, the number of occurrences of action that applicants are construed as performing in the four data sets is shown in Table 7-18.

U1970s	F1970s	U2010s	F2010s
93	246	395	318

Table 7-18 Frequency of actions that applicants are construed as performing across four data sets

From Table 7-18, it is apparent that in financial job advertisements and 2010s university job advertisements the frequencies are closer to each other than in the 1970s university job advertisements which have the lowest frequency (93) and thus are an outlier. This indicates that there are more similarities among the three data sets.

Moving on to a more qualitative analysis, each semantic category of actions that applicants are construed as performing is compared.

Performing duties

Performing duties portrays applicants as conducting the duties of the post and this is used as a way of stating those duties. Examples from financial job advertisements are presented below. The duties are underlined, modality is in bold and applicants' reference terms are capitalized. The frequency across four data sets is shown in Figure 7-22.

Ex.162 As part of a small team, YOU ***will have*** *responsibility for developing your own territory. (F1973 3)*

Ex.163 HE ***will be*** *responsible for supervising day-to-day operations of the bank. (F1971 9)*

*Ex.164 Building mutually beneficial long-term relationships with a variety of customers, YOU****'ll*** *capitalize on your profound knowledge of the global financial services market […] (F2010 0384)*

Ex.165 Working directly with senior management, the successful CANDIDATE ***will find*** *themselves* [sic] ***exposed to*** *big ticket transactions and* ***will be expected to*** *quickly acquire an in depth knowledge of the sector. (F2010 0817)*

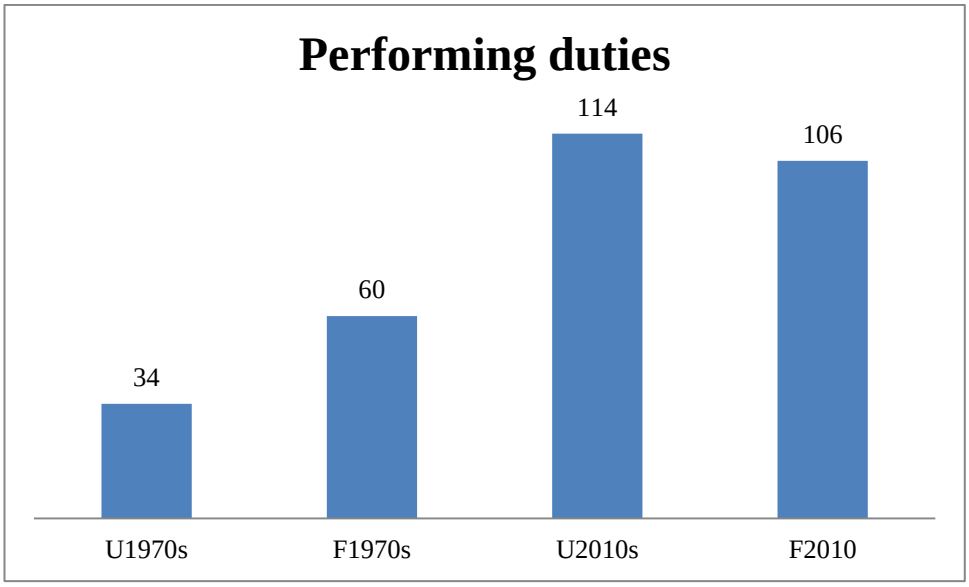


Figure 7-22 Frequency of the *performing duties* across four data sets

There are two key linguistic features which I argued earlier to be relevant to the construal of power relation and informalization: modality and applicant reference terms. To recapitulate on my arguments, I argue that the use of modalization such as 'will' instead of modulation such as 'should' and 'will be expected to' indicates an attempt to reduce the power relation construed between employer organizations and applicants. To obscure power relations, as Fairclough (1993) argues, is associated with a sales technique, conveying an egalitarian relationship and friendliness. This technique might be argued to be used to persuade potential applicants to apply for the job. The number of occurrences of processes being modalized in a different ways across the four data sets is provided in Table 7-19, below.

	U1970s	**F1970s**	**U2010s**	**F2010**
modalization	15	38	73	70
modulation	4	0	0	2
modulation grammatical metaphor	10	6	24	7
non-finite	4	13	15	23
finite	1	3	2	4
total	34	60	114	106

Table 7-19 Frequency of modality for *performing duties* across four data sets

From Table 7-19, it is evident that modalization occurs more frequently in the 2010s data. In the 1970s data, it appears more frequently in financial job advertisements than in university job advertisements (38 vs 15). However, given that the total number differs across data sets, percentages are possibly a better means of comparison. The percentages are shown in the graph below.

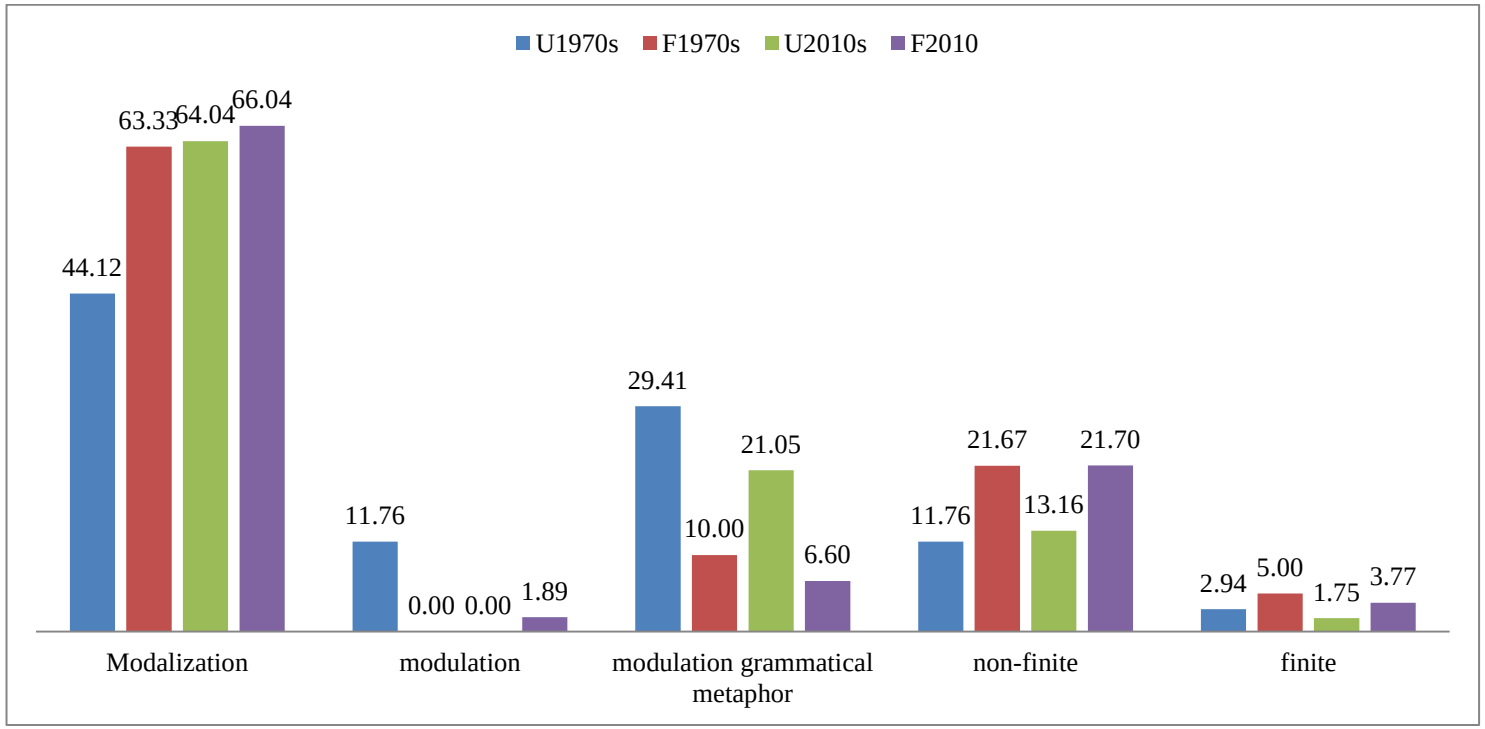


Figure 7-23 Percentages of modality for *performing duties* across four data sets

Figure 7-23 shows a trend whereby the use of modality in the *performing duties* category in university job advertisements has become more similar to that of financial job advertisements in many respects. To begin with, the number of modalizations of action increases in the 2010s university job advertisements, making it very close to the financial job advertisements. The number of grammatical metaphors for modulated action decreases in the 2010s university job advertisements, moving closer to financial job advertisements.

It is interesting to note that there is a reverse trend as well. The modulation which is absent from the 1970s financial job advertisements emerges in the 2010 financial job advertisements. In university job advertisements, on the other hand, this occurs in the 1970s data but not in the 2010s data. In addition, the use of non-finite forms in the *performing duties* category remains relatively constant across time. The financial job advertisements use non-finite forms more often than do university job advertisements for both periods of time (approx. 21% vs 12%). It seems that a non-finite form obscures the duties required of applicants. However, these trends constitute a marginal pattern in comparison to the trends which show the similarities between university and financial job advertisements.

Another linguistic feature is applicant reference terms. Previously, I have argued that there is an increase in the use of personal pronouns which makes job advertisements more interactive and conversational. This in turn reduces social distance. The reduction of the power relation noted above and the narrowing of social distance serve a persuasive purpose and indirectly work to sell the job to potential applicants. The occurrences of applicant reference terms are therefore compared across the four

data sets. The raw frequencies are shown in Table 7-20 and percentages in Figure 7-24. The main means of comparison, however, will be percentages.

	U1970s	**F1970s**	**U2010s**	**F2010s**
candidature	10	4	18	7
personal pronoun	0	9	18	44
anaphor	2	17	3	2
position	11	10	30	21
generic	3	9	1	8
total	26	49	70	82

Table 7-20 Frequency of applicants' reference terms for *performing duties* across four data sets

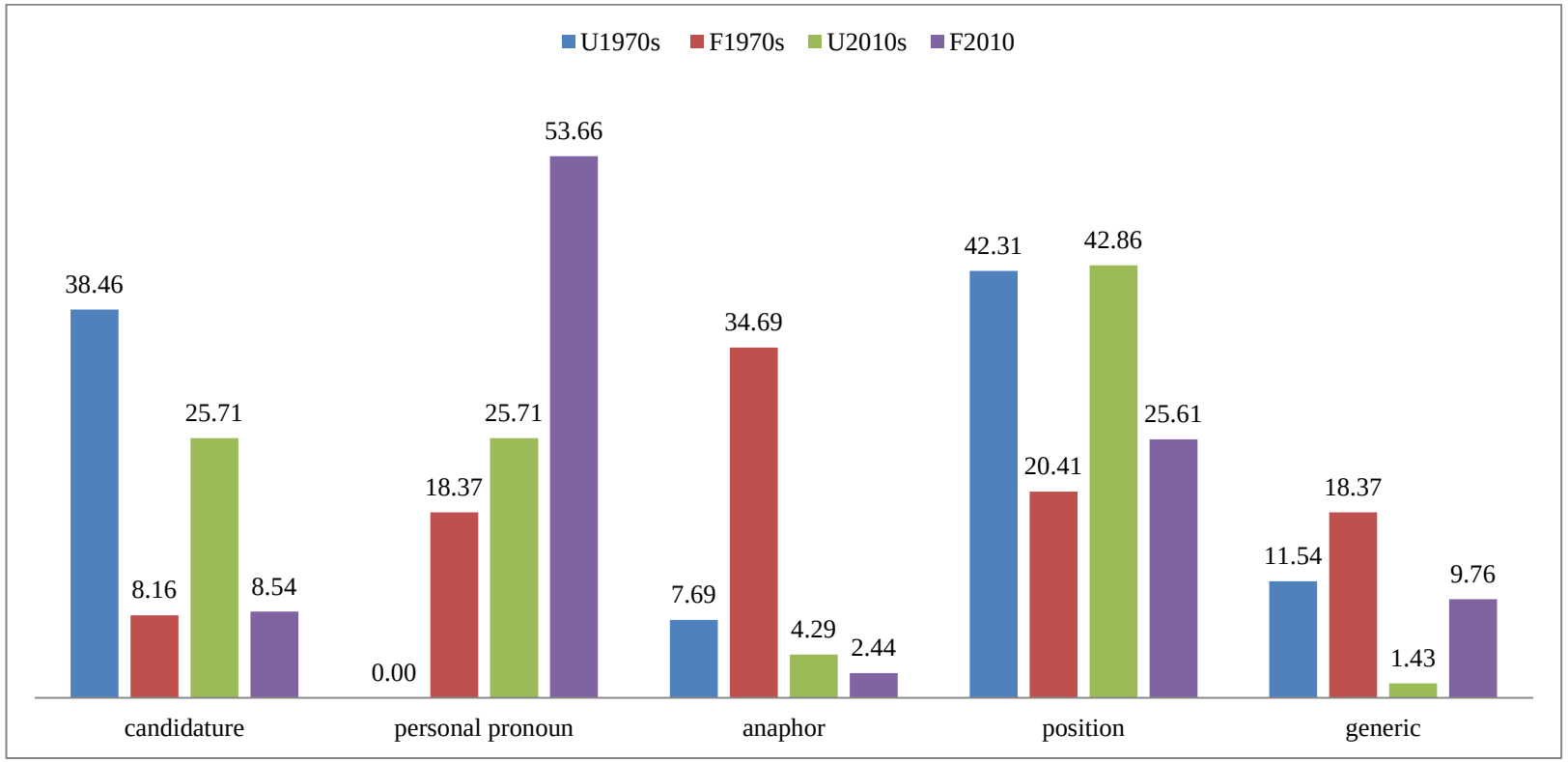


Figure 7-24 Percentages of applicants' reference terms for *performing duties* across four data sets

From the graph, the increase in use of personal pronouns is evident in both university and financial job advertisements. It may be argued that this is part of a general trend in language change called colloquialization (Leech et al., 2009: 239). However, given that personal pronouns are completely absent from the *performing duties* category of the 1970s university job advertisements but occur in the 1970s financial job advertisements, informalization is unlikely to be the sole explanation for this pattern. The patterns of other kinds of applicant reference terms seem more scattered, and as such it seems unclear whether any claim can be made in relation to such distribution.

Possessing qualifications/ attributes

This category represents applicants as having certain qualities required for the position. Examples are shown below. Responsibilities are underlined, modality is in bold and applicant reference terms are capitalized. The frequency across four data sets is shown in Figure 7-25.

*Ex.166 To gain our favours [sic], YOU **must be** aged 25-45, successful in your present job, full of enthusiasm and integrity […] (F1971 2)*

*Ex.1673 The successful APPLICANT **will be** a self-starter, prepared to accept substantial responsibility early in his appointment. (F1974 15)*

*Ex.168 If YOU **have** the intellectual curiosity and entrepreneurial spirit to help our clients make their business a better business, we want to hear from you. (F2010 0575)*

*Ex.169 THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCHER **will have** a very strong understanding of forecasting and data mining techniques and **will need to be** highly motivated and passionate individual.* [sic] *(F2010 1230)*

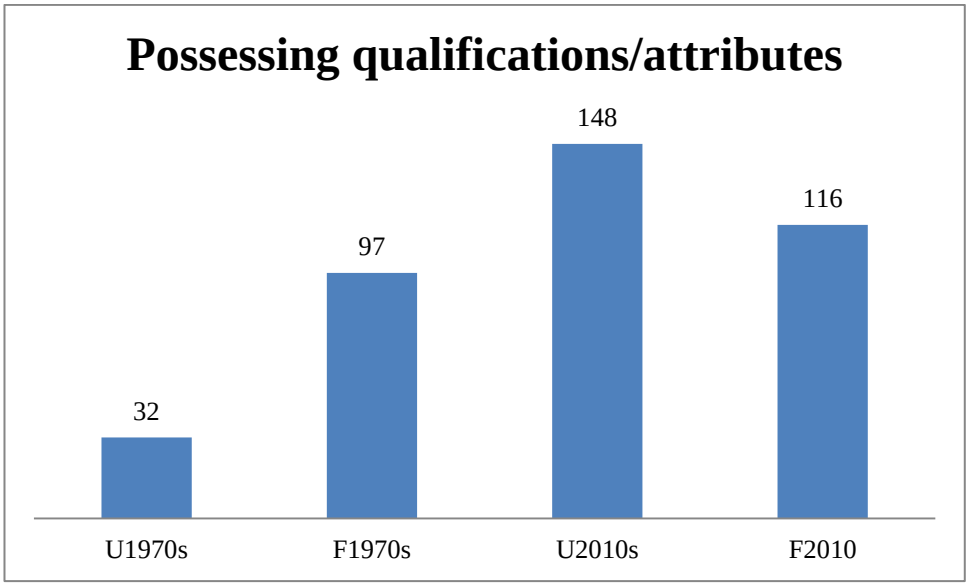


Figure 7-25 Frequency of *possessing qualifications/attributes* across four data sets

The salient linguistic features are similar to those identified in the *performing duties* category. The first one is the use of modality. As such, the number of modalized and unmodalized processes is compared across four data sets and the raw frequencies shown in Table 7-21. A comparison based on percentages is shown in Figure 7-26.

		U1970s	F1970s	U2010s	F2010s
modalization		4	43	72	51
modulation		24	36	57	34
modulation	grammatical metaphor	2	4	7	4
non-finite		1	1	4	0
finite		1	13	8	27
total		32	97	148	116

Table 7-21 Frequency of modality in possessing qualifications/attributes across four data sets

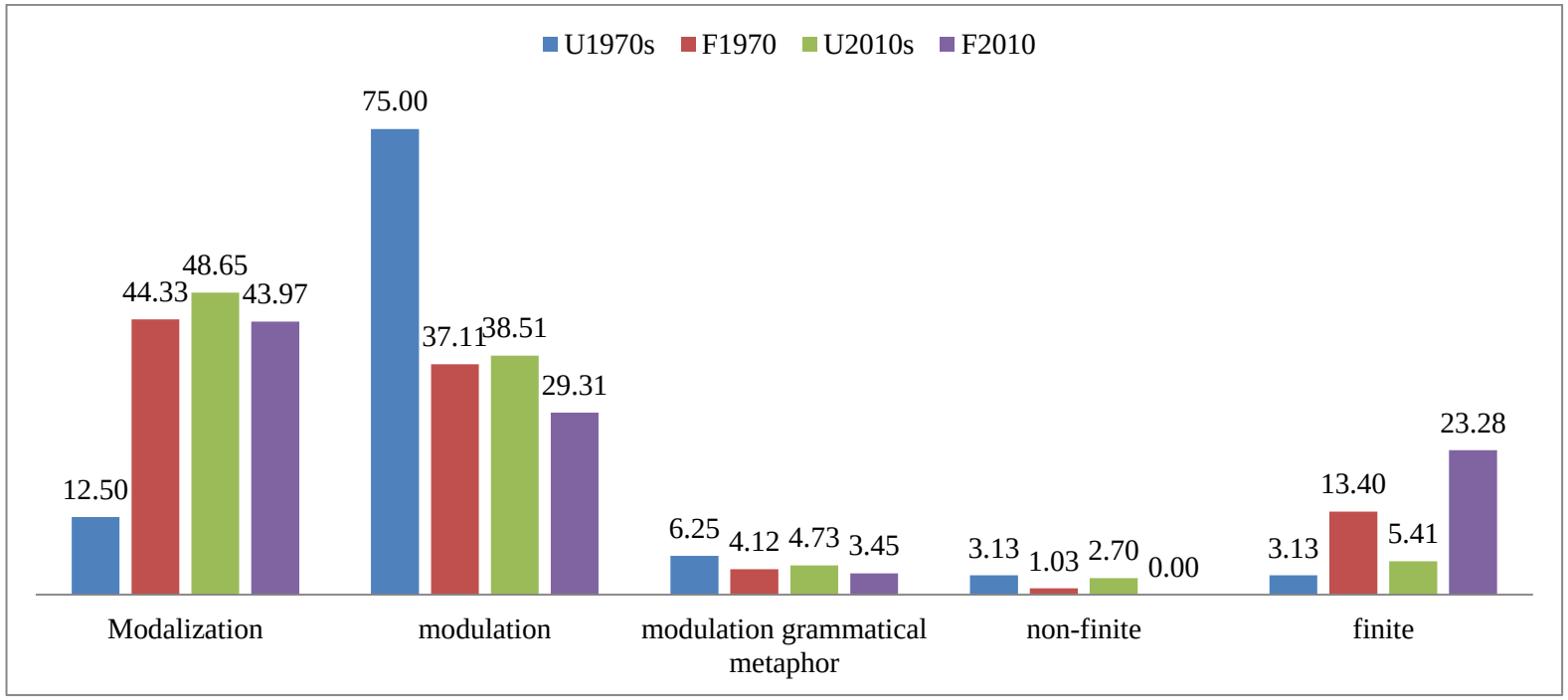


Figure 7-26 Percentages of modality in *possessing qualifications/attributes* across four data sets

From Figure 7-26, it is apparent that there are two prominent trends in the use of modality: a marked increase in modalization and a drastic decrease in modulation in university job advertisements. In financial job advertisements, on the other hand, the percentages remain comparatively stable. The graph shows that the 2010s university job advertisements are similar to the 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements when it comes to the use of modality in the *possessing qualities/ attributes* category. As a consequence, the findings indicate a move towards lowering the power relation between employer organizations and applicants in academic contexts.

Another linguistic feature is applicant reference terms. Raw frequencies are provided in Table 7-22 and percentages in Figure 7-27.

	U1970s	**F1970s**	**U2010s**	**F2010s**
candidature	26	31	42	43
personal pronoun	0	11	42	36
anaphor	2	24	8	1
position	1	4	6	6
generic	2	9	3	13
total	31	79	101	99

Table 7-22 Frequency of applicants' reference terms in *possessing qualifications/attributes* across four data sets

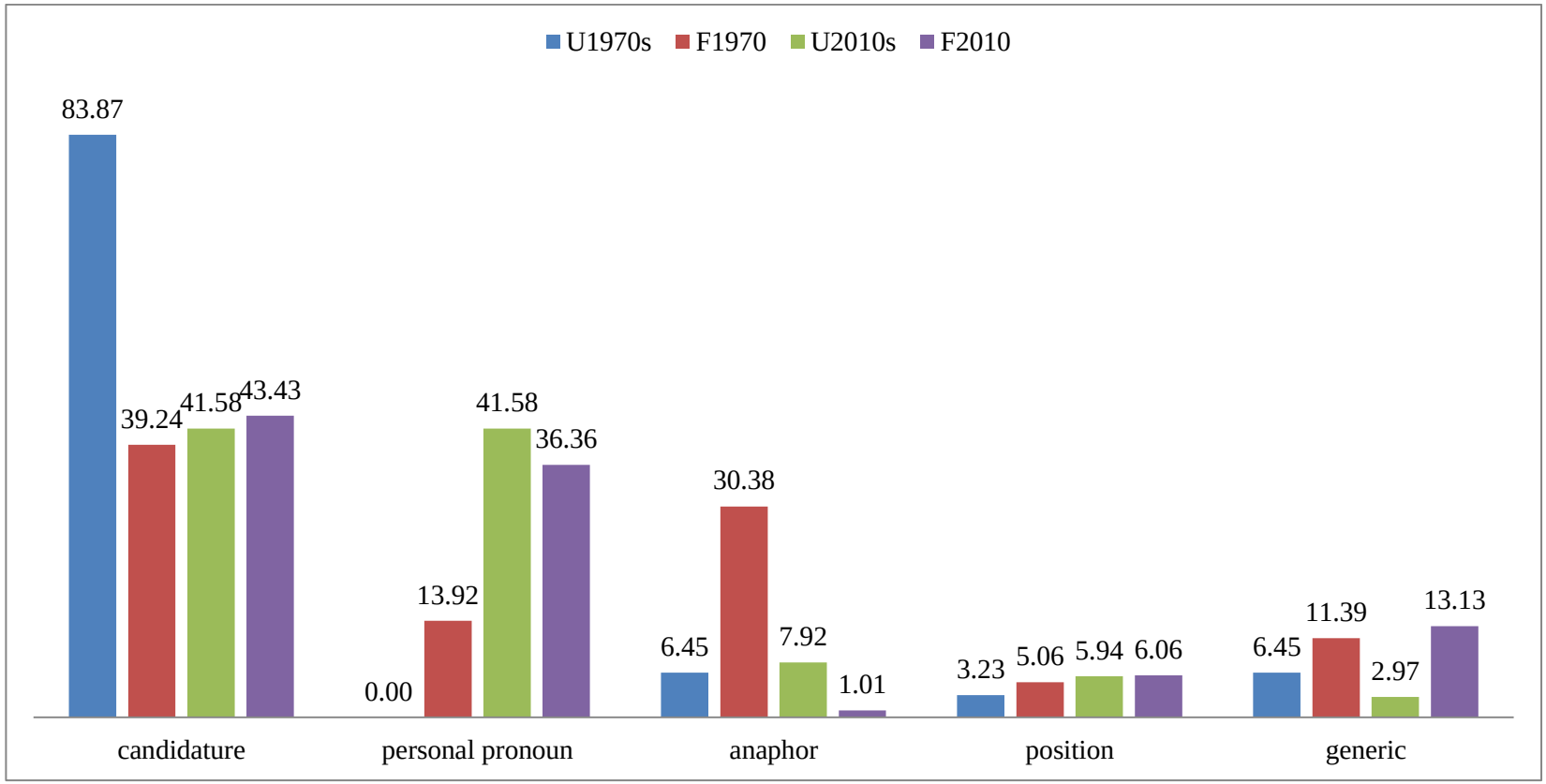


Figure 7-27 Percentages of applicants' reference terms in *possessing qualifications/ attributes* across four data sets

From the graph, it can be seen that there are two very noticeable trends: the reduction in candidature and the increase in personal pronouns in university job advertisements. These trends result in university job advertisements becoming more similar to financial job advertisements, which have been more conversational and interactive since the 1970s.

Seeking a job

This semantic category portrays applicants as wanting or looking for a job. Examples from the financial job data are shown below, with processes indicating *seeking a job* in bold and frequency across the four data sets is provided in Figure 7-28.

*Ex.170 If you have a proven history in your present sphere of operations and you **are interested** in improving your position in life, send a written summary of your career to date to […] (F1971 10)*

*Ex.171 So wherever you are or whenever you **would like to** work, if the sound of the job **interests** you then get in touch with us. (F1973 2)*

*Ex.172 Are you a talented graduate developer with knowledge of vB.net/c=C#.net and SQL server development **looking** for a challenging first role? (F2010 2303)*

*Ex.173 If you **are looking to accelerate** your career and move into the world of financial services, there's no better place to start. (F2010 0531)*

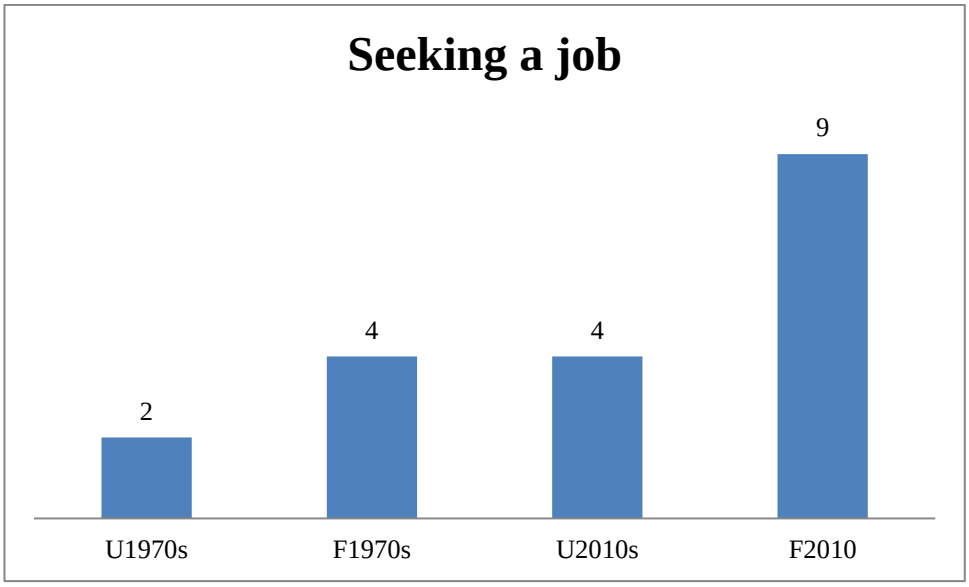


Figure 7-28 Frequency of *seeking a job* across four data sets

From the figure, it is obvious that this semantic category occurs more frequently in financial job advertisements with the 2010 financial job advertisements being an outlier (4 in the 1970s and 9 in the 2010 financial job advertisements vs 2 in the 1970s and 4 in the 2010s university job advertisements). Even though the differential is not very large, there seems to be a trajectory with university job advertisements following the trend of financial job advertisements. Given that this category serves a persuasive purpose, the rise indicates an increase in the promotional features of financial job advertisements, thereby also indicating increasing promotional features in university job advertisements.

Joining

This category constructs potential applicants as joining the organization and is often use to promote the credentials of the organization. The underlying message seems to be that the applicants, in applying to join the employer organization, are going to be

part of a great organization. Examples from the financial job advertisements are provided and the raw frequencies across the four data sets are shown in Figure 7-29.

*Ex.174 The successful applicant **will join** an expanding division of the Bank dealing with Corporate Finance […] (F1973 2)*

*Ex.175 We […] need high calibre business orientated professionals **to join** our EDP team which is characterized by its responsible business management style. (F1973 9)*

*Ex.176 Whether your career lies in assurance, tax, transaction, advisory or core business services, you **will be joining** an organization where you count as an individual […] (F2010 1032)*

*Ex.177 Executive Advisor – Commodity & Energy Risk **required to join** a large consultancy practice. (F2010 0321)*

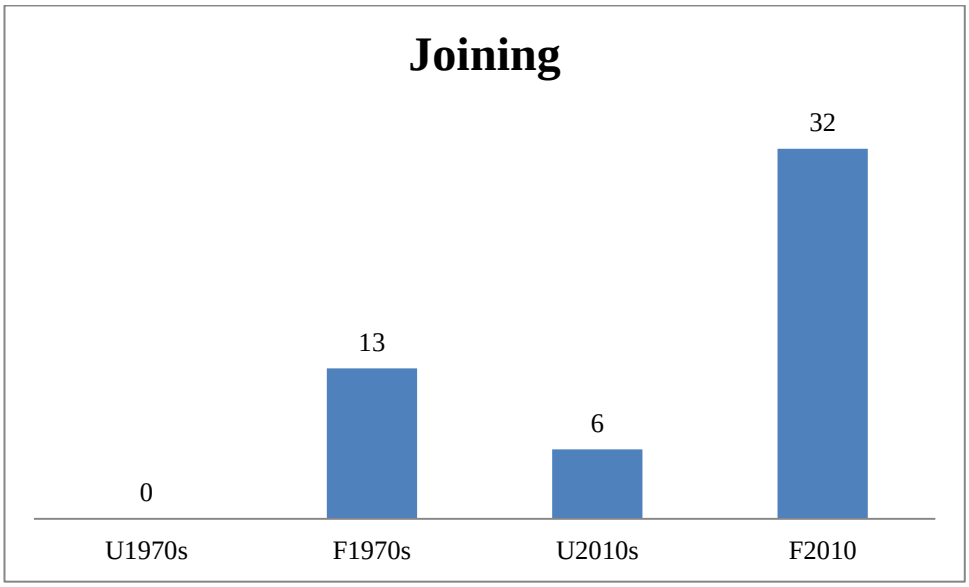


Figure 7-29 Frequency of *joining* across four data sets

The trend in Figure 7-29 might be interpreted as indicating that financial job advertisements have been more promotional than university job advertisements since the 1970s. This category had already appeared in 1970s financial job advertisements but is absent from the 1970s university job advertisements. In the 2010s, the number rises to 32 in financial job advertisements. In 2010s university job advertisements, *joining* starts

to appear with a frequency of 6. It should be noted, nevertheless, that there are also instances of the word 'join' but words referring to applicants do not appear nearby. Still, this category indicates that university job advertisements imitate the promotional strategy that has been used in financial job advertisements. This further reinforces the trend in which academic recruitment discourse aligns itself to business recruitment discourse.

Benefiting

In this category, the advertisements state the benefits that the applicants can expect once they become part of the organization. Examples from financial job data are provided and the frequency across the four data sets is shown in Figure 7-30.

*Ex.178 The man we are seeking will have to work hard but he **will be rewarded** with a starting salary not less than £4,000 […] (F1974 12)*

*Ex.179 Whatever your present salary, you **can better it** both now and in the future. (F1971 7)*

*Ex.180 If you **are looking to earn** a comparable amount to the bulge brackets (including full cash bonus) […] (F2010 0064)*

*Ex.181 All of which means that you'll **thrive** in a dynamic environment that provides a dedicated, world-class relationship management service. (F2010 0384)*

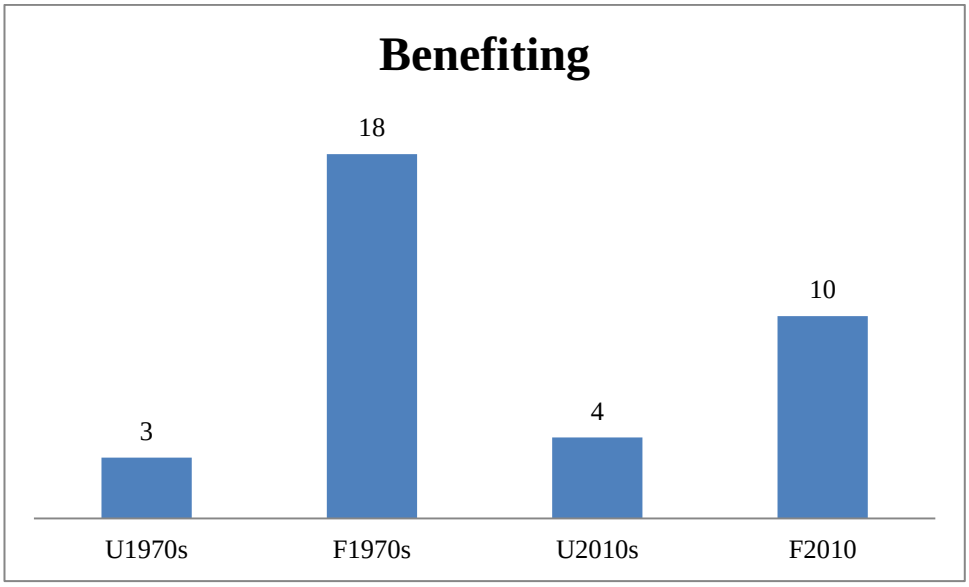


Figure 7-30 Frequency of *benefiting* across four data sets

From the graph, the frequency of this category drops in the financial job advertisements (18 in the 1970s vs 10 in the 2010s). In the university job advertisements, the number is relatively stable (3 in 1970s and 4 in 2010s). Still, the occurrences of this category are higher in the financial job advertisements, thereby indicating that they are more promotional than university job advertisements. The use of *benefiting* as a strategy seems to be associated with a hard-sales technique whereby advertisers directly persuade the reader by telling them what they can get as extras (e.g. in the context of commodity sales, this would be in the form of a discount). As such, it seems that academic recruitment discourse does not take up this strategy.

Contacting/ applying

This category shows how applicants can obtain more information or apply for the job. Excerpts are shown below and raw frequencies are provided in Figure 7-31.

Ex.182 Interested? – ***Fill in the coupon below for more details****. (F1971 3)*

Ex.183 If you know you are: ***write – with full details – to the address below****. (F1972 1)*

Ex.184 If you are interested in this position and meet the criteria, please ***forward your CV*** *to jonathan.dover@onesearch.co.uk. (F2010 0817)*

Ex.185 Candidates are being short-listed and interviews will shortly follow so ***send in a CV*** *ASAP. (F2010 0001)*

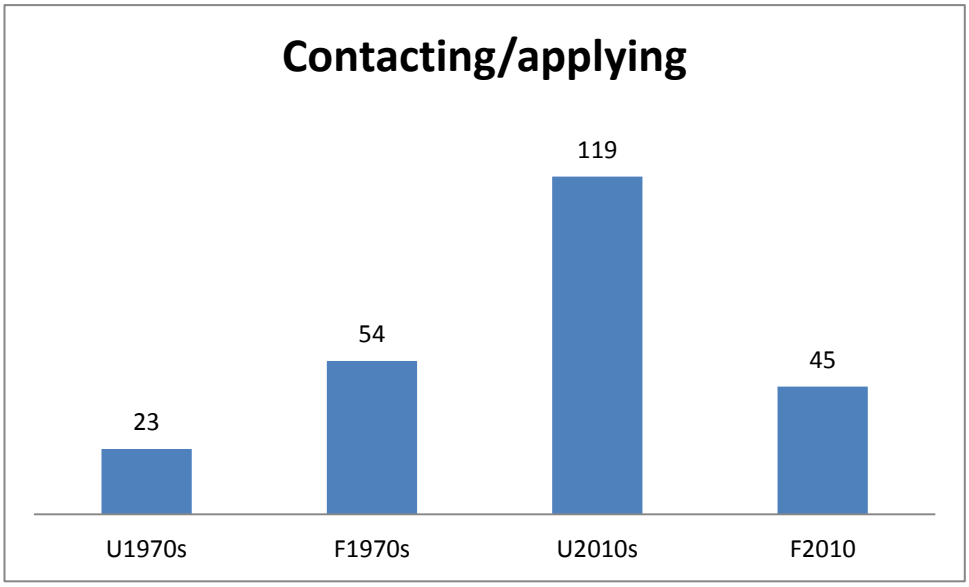


Figure 7-31 Frequency of *contacting/applying* across four data sets

The graph shows that the frequency is highest in the 2010s university job advertisements (119 occurrences), while in the financial job advertisements there is a decline (54 in the 1970s vs 45 in the 2010s). This may well be because the interface of the 2010 financial job advertisements website has an 'apply now' button which makes this redundant, while the 2010s university job advertisements website does not always have this button. Overall, financial job advertisements and 2010s university job advertisements are more interactive than 1970s university job advertisements.

Table 7-23 summarizes the frequency of each semantic category across the four data sets.

	U1970s	F1970s	U2010s	F2010
performing duties	34	60	114	106
possessing qualifications/attributes	32	97	148	116
seeking job	1	4	4	9
joining	0	13	6	32
benefiting	3	18	4	10
contacting/applying	23	54	119	45
total	93	246	395	318

Table 7-23 Frequency of each category of actions that applicants are construed as performing across four data sets

From the table, there seem to be four emerging patterns. First, there is an increase in the *performing duties* and *possessing qualifications/ attributes* categories, and in the 1970s the financial job advertisements had higher occurrences of these two categories than the university job advertisements. This trend shows that position specification is more informative in the three data sets (2010s university job advertisements, 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements). In addition, the linguistic features of these categories – i.e. modality and applicant reference terms – indicate a reduction in the power differential and a rise in the interactive features of these three data sets. The use of these linguistic features, as argued above, seems to be related to sales techniques, which in turn suggests a trace of marketized discourse.

The second trend is the discursive construction of applicants' desire and organizations' self-promotion, as shown by the *seeking job* and *joining* categories. The former constructs the applicants as wanting a job. The latter presupposes this desire and seizes the opportunity to promote how great the employer organizations are. In both of these categories, the university job advertisements seem to follow the financial job advertisements' trajectory of change. Even though there is still a large discrepancy between the frequency of these categories in the 2010s university and financial job

advertisements (4 vs 9 for *seeking a job* and 6 vs 32 for *joining*), persuasiveness and self-promotion are arguably on the rise in university job advertisements.

The third trend is an increase in the *contacting/ applying* category, which signifies interactivity and the organizations' desire for applicants to apply for the job. The frequency is highest in the 2010s but this is mainly due to procedural details. Still, it is apparent that the 2010s university job advertisements are closer to financial job advertisements than to 1970s university job advertisements.

The final trend is in university job advertisements differing from financial job advertisements. In the *benefiting* category, the frequency in university job advertisements remains relatively the same (3 in the 1970s and 4 in the 2010s). The frequency in financial job advertisements on the other hand declines (18 in the 1970s vs 10 in the 2010s), but the number is still higher than in university job advertisements. This category seems to be associated with a hard-sales technique. In consequence, the sharp distinction between university and financial job advertisements indicates that such a hard-sales strategy does not dominate university recruitment discourse.

7.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I have investigated how employer organizations and applicants are represented in 1970s and 2010s university and financial job advertisements. The overarching analytical framework is systemic functional grammar (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). The analysis reveals a drastic change in university job advertisements which are adopting business terminology and ideology as well as clearly moving towards financial job advertisement style.

Regarding the representation of employer organizations, the major trend is the prevailing promotional discourse and entrepreneurialism in university job advertisements. Promotional discourse is very salient in the 2010s university job advertisements. The employer organizations are rarely mentioned in the 1970s data but in the 2010s data employer organizations are construed as performing various kinds of actions and possessing various kinds of attributes. Some of these actions and attributes, such as *creating/ developing* and *credentials,* are inherently promotional and serve to sell the organization. Furthermore, the use of different kinds of process types seems to have a rhetorical effect, increasing the persuasiveness of job advertisements. The work of academic institutions has also changed, now with a more important role for support services. Moreover, academic institutions position themselves as services providers, offering services to customers. In addition, academic institutions portray themselves as resourceful organizations engaged in financial activities using business related terminology such as 'invest'.

Overall then, university job advertisements have transformed from being informational to be saturated with positive evaluations of the organizational image. Furthermore, university job advertisements in the 2010s show more enthusiasm for recruiting new staff through the use of inclination modality and progressive aspect, both of which construe volition. As a consequence, I argue that organizations position themselves as sellers, service providers and entrepreneurs.

In financial job advertisements, on the other hand, there are not many changes in the way employer organizations are represented. Employer organizations are construed as performing various kinds of actions and possessing several types of attributes. The graphs shown in Sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2 clearly show that while generally financial job

advertisements change only slightly, university job advertisements are moving towards business job advertisement style. The linguistic features identified in 2010s university job advertisements, namely the use of inclination modality and progressive aspect for *recruiting,* have been identified in 1970s financial job advertisements. It seems then that university job advertisements are following the strategies that have been used in financial job advertisements since the 1970s. Some of these linguistic features and the semantic categories of action and attribute indicate an attempt by employer organizations to sell the organizational image and persuade potential applicants to apply for the job.

In terms of the representation of applicants, there is also a similar trend in that there are large changes in university job advertisements but only slight changes in financial job advertisements. The analysis of modality and applicant reference terms in relation to *performing duties* and *possessing qualifications/ attributes* indicates an attempt to reduce the power relation and an increasingly conversational tone. In addition, advertisements construct applicants as wanting a job and joining the organization. Financial job advertisements also construct applicants as gaining benefits from the organization, a technique associated with a hard-sales technique. This category is absent from university job advertisements. Furthermore, there is an emerging use of 'customer service skills' as a required attribute and academics playing a role in generating financial resources for the employer organization. In summary, applicants in university job advertisements are positioned as potential buyers of the job, but at the same time they are 'customer-focused' and cash-cow employees.

With respect to the analytical process, my data analysis employs systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) in a different way from what other

studies have done (cf. Fairclough, 2003). The patterns of transitivity itself, as I have discussed throughout this chapter, need to be discussed in relation to the semantic categories of actions in order to make a meaningful interpretation. The use of different process types, for example, results in an added layer of meaning, which in the context of this study intensifies the evaluative tone of statements. The data analysis indicates that while systemic functional grammar is insightful, other linguistic features need to be investigated too. There are other linguistic features that are relevant, such as metaphor, presupposition and politeness. In one case (the phrase 'has seen'), an interpretation needs to be drawn from a corpus investigation as well. These linguistic features, in the context of job advertisements, serve as tools for the positive evaluation of organizations.

Further evidence of marketized discourse comes from the content and certain lexis. Given that the purpose of this study is to investigate marketized discourse, therefore, it should not be restricted by one theoretical framework. The meaning categories of action itself have proved useful for comparison. Also, there are words such as 'invest', 'customer' and 'significant grant capture' which are loaded with business ideology. Therefore, I decided to note these words in the analysis even though they are not related to systemic functional linguistic or any other linguistic theory that I have applied. Indeed they are a clear indicator that business ideology is being adopted into universities' recruitment discourse.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1 OVERVIEW

Section 8.2 summarises the main findings. Sections 8.3 – 8.6 relate these findings to the concept of marketization and in so doing address the primary aim of this thesis. Section 8.7 addresses the secondary aim of my thesis by discussing the theoretical and methodological synergy of critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics. Section 8.8 shifts the focus to my critique of the marketization of university discourse. Section 8.9 concerns the limitations of this research and makes suggestions for future investigation. Section 8.10 concludes my thesis.

8.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the claim made by Fairclough (1993) that the marketization of higher education institutions has resulted in universities' discursive practices being transformed along the lines of the discursive practices of business organizations. Such change has been claimed to constitute the 'colonization' of universities' discourse (ibid.), which affects not only language but also the identities of the institutions and people involved. From a discourse perspective, this claim requires a demonstration of the similarities between university discourse and business discourse and the diachronic changes in university discourse.

This study has investigated this claim through the lenses of critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics to determine the extent to which universities' discursive practices have aligned themselves with the discursive practices of business organizations. Linking back to Fairclough's (1993) model (see page 27 of this thesis),

the investigation focuses on describing and interpreting linguistic features which show the traces in which university discourse is influenced by business discourse. The secondary focus is on explaining the socio-cultural practices in terms of how marketized discourse position universities and staff, which can have an implication for their identities as education institutions and personnel.

Job advertisements were selected as the data source. As discussed in Chapter 3, the primary reason was that job advertisement production is a routine activity which makes such advertisements a potential site for investigating naturalized ideology. Second, there are a large number of job advertisements, making them suitable for corpus linguistic analysis. Third, they have existed for a long time, thus facilitating a diachronic investigation. For these reasons, even though this study has not investigated all the genres produced by universities, job advertisements represent a strong candidate for an investigation into the discursive practices of universities.

The overarching questions which guided this study were provided in Chapter 1. These are:

RQ1. What are the similarities and differences between recent university and financial job advertisements in terms of:

1.1 the representation of employer organizations and applicants;
1.2 how the relationship between employer organizations and applicants is construed;
1.3 the generic structure of job advertisements;
1.4 the phraseology of job advertisements?

RQ2. How do the current discursive practices in university and financial job advertisements differ from practices in the 1970s in terms of:

2.1 the representation of employer organizations and applicants;

2.2 how the relationship between employer organizations and applicants is construed;

2.3 the generic structure of job advertisements?

A secondary aim of this thesis was to explore how critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics can be used to reinforce each other.

In order to answer these research questions, this thesis combines corpus linguistic methods and manual linguistic analysis which is traditionally used in critical discourse analysis. Job advertisements produced by universities and business organizations in the 1970s and 2010s were compared in relation to the above research questions. Questions pertaining to recent job advertisements (RQs 1.1 – 1.4) were investigated using both methods. Questions related to the diachronic changes of job advertisements (RQs 2.1 – 2.3) were investigated using only manual linguistic analysis. This is due to an issue of practicality because the 1970s job advertisements are not available in an electronic format.

Results from the different methodologies provide converging evidence in support of the claim that university discourse is being 'colonized' by business discourse. The main results are as follows:

- There is a high degree of overlap between the underlying values used as a basis for self-promotion in university and financial job advertisements;
- Employer organizations in university and financial job advertisements are construed as competing with each other to attract applicants;
- Applicants are construed as striving for a challenge while performing a lot of duties and competing for financial resources;

- Process types are strategically manipulated to enhance self-promotion;
- Modality and other linguistic features are used persuasively to sell the job to the applicant and mitigate the rhetorical force of the requirements;
- The structural patterns of university job advertisements have changed with a drastic increase in the moves used to promote the organization;
- While the phraseology identified in job advertisements seems typical of the genre, some lexical bundles are employed for self-promotion and persuasion.

In what follows, I discuss these findings in relation to the marketization of university recruitment discourse.

8.3 REPRESENTATION OF ORGANIZATIONS AND APPLICANTS

This section discusses the findings related to the representation of employer organizations and applicants. As noted in the previous section, both corpus linguistics methodology and critical discourse analysis were used for this question. However, they were used to approach this question from different angles. In corpus linguistics, the focus is on evaluative adjectives whereas in critical discourse analysis the focus is on process types.

8.3.1 Changing value systems

The corpus investigation into the value system underlying organizational descriptions indicates that there are many similarities between the value systems and evaluative adjectives construing these values in university and financial job advertisements. To arrive at this claim, I investigated the evaluative adjectives used to describe universities and business organizations (see Chapter 5 for more details). These evaluative adjectives are grouped according to their semantics and these semantic

groups represent the underlying values of employer organizations. The semantic groups are shown in Table 8-1, below.

1. SIZE e.g. large, biggest, sizable	10. WEALTH e.g. well-resourced, profitable, lucrative
2. GROWTH e.g. thriving, growing, expanding	11. VISION e.g. research-led, entrepreneurial, ambitious
3. DYNAMISM e.g. dynamic, vibrant, active	12. EMOTIONAL APPEAL e.g. exciting, impressive, attractive
4. REPUTATION/ACHIEVEMENTS e.g. successful, recognized, renowned	13. CARING e.g. collegiate, supportive, helpful
5. RANK e.g. world-class, top, top-tier	14. UNIQUENESS e.g. unique, distinctive, specialized
6. COMPETITIVENESS e.g. leading, competitive, world-leading	15. INCLUSIVITY e.g. inclusive, affirmative
7. GLOBAL REACH e.g. global, international	16. GOODNESS e.g. excellent, good, best
8. INNOVATIVENESS e.g. innovative, new, modern	17 OTHERS e.g. purpose-built, well-developed
9. ESTABLISHED e.g. established, integrated, traditional	

Table 8-1 semantic categories of evaluative adjectives

The analysis indicates that the semantic categories of evaluative adjectives in the academic and business job corpora are largely the same. Moreover, there is considerable overlap between individual evaluative adjectives in the two corpora as well. The strength of evaluative meaning is comparatively similar. I ranked the categories in the academic and business job corpora according to their frequency and found a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.787$, $p < 0.01$). In corroborating Fairclough's claim, the finding of this study shows that the underlying values of universities and the organizational identity they entail now mostly resemble those of business organizations.

The second point of discussion is that the values associated with business organizations are dominant while those associated with universities are marginalized in discourse. I determined which semantic categories are associated with university and

business using a Fisher's Exact Test and odd ratio. I then looked at the frequency ranking of the categories in the university job corpus and found that that the semantic categories related to competitiveness, which are associated with business organizations, have the highest frequency in the academic and business job corpora. On the other hand, in the university job corpus, socially oriented values and intellectual excitement, which are associated with universities, are ranked very low in the order. It seems therefore that these values, in spite of their strong association with universities, are being marginalized. Related to this is Slater and Tonkiss's claim that marketized discourse 'corrodes' the values of host institutions (Slater & Tonkiss, 2001). The finding is also consistent with that of Sauntson & Morrish (2011) who analyse university mission statements and argue that they discursively construct the corporate image of universities, using words associated with business values. Despite being marginal, I believe that these values present the potential for universities to construct an identity that is different from that of business organizations. As a result, they go some way to balance the alignment of universities with business organizations.

8.3.2 Changing actions and attributes

The analysis of the actions and attributes of institutional entities in discourse shows a converging pattern in which universities are becoming more like business organizations. In university job advertisements there is a marked increase in self-promotion, supporting Fairclough's (1993) claim that promotion will be more salient in university discourse. Moreover, universities are portrayed as entrepreneurial and marketized, adopting business lexis and linguistic strategies for use in self-promotion. Data analysis shows that universities are mentioned more frequently in the 2010s and this increase is more substantial than the equivalent increase in financial job

advertisements. Universities are construed as performing various activities and possessing attributes that convey their strength, in some cases by means of financial resources.

The types of activities universities and financial services organizations are construed as performing, and illustrative examples from chapter 7, are provided below.

Recruiting

*Ex.1 We **are seeking** a Professor with an international research track record […] (U2010s 1/1575)*

*Ex.2 Alexander Black Recruitment **is urgently looking for a Quant Manager** to join our high profile client. (F1970s 1781)*

Working

*Ex.3 At present, it [the Department] **teaches** for the degree of B.Sc. (Ecological Science […] (U1974 6)*

*Ex.4 Charterhouse **provides** merchant banking, investment, insurance broking and many other financial services to industry and the general public. (F1973 6)*

Promising work conditions

*Ex.5 In return, we **offer** a comprehensive in-house staff training and development […] (U2010s 1/1405)*

*Ex.6 We can **offer you an exciting, fast-paced working environment, a culture of mutual respect** [...] (F2010 455)*

Financing

*Ex.7 The School has **received** a grant from the Esmee Fair Charitable Trust […] (U1971 14)*

*Ex.8 We **invest** across the entire capital structure [...] (F2010 2228)*

Creating/developing

Ex.9 […] it (Department) ***seeks to further strengthen*** *its position as a leading international centre of architecture and building services teaching, learning and research (U2010s 1/1907)*

Ex.10 We ***are continuing to expand*** *our fast-growing life sales organization [...] (F1973 10)*

Requiring

Ex.11 ***Regrettably*** *we* ***are unable to consider*** *applications from candidates who require… (U2010s 1472)*

Ex.12 In particular, our client ***requires*** *someone who has the maturity to realize that the corner-stone of [...] (F1974 5)*

Urging contact

Ex.13 We ***would like to hear from*** *you. (F1973 10)*

While 1970s university job advertisements portray universities as working and recruiting, 2010s university job advertisements and financial job advertisements present employer organizations as performing various kinds of activities, and some of these activities, e.g. *creating/ developing* and *financing*, have a promotional significance. They present the university or business organization as a dynamic organization that is progressing and has financial resources. I would argue that such a portrayal serves to promote the organization and indirectly persuade potential applicants. There are also instances of direct persuasion as in the *promising work conditions* category. A four-way comparison of the frequency of each category shows a trend in which university job advertisements are moving towards financial job advertisements.

In addition, universities in the 2010s are construed as having the attributes that highlight their strength in a promotional way while in the 1970s they were not. Financial services organizations have been construed as having attractive attributes

since the 1970s, indicating that university discourse and business discourse are converging. The categories of attributes and their examples are shown below. As noted in Section 7.4, in university job advertisements, there is a sharp increase in *credentials*, indicating the increasing saliency of self-promotion in university discourse.

Part of a group/ organizational classification

Ex.14 The bioengineering unit is ***a department of the university [****…] (U1972 2)*

Ex.15 We are ***a company within the Hill Samuel Group*** *[...] (F1973 15)*

Credentials

Ex.16 The School has ***excellent research resources*** *with a range of databases [...] (U2010s 1/357)*

Ex.17 Our investment bank is ***one of the world's top global*** *investment bank and securities firms [...] (F2010 1267)*

Plan /mission/commitment

Ex.18 The ***central mission*** *of the institute* ***is*** *to provide evidence-based understanding and intellectual leadership […] (U2010s 1/2526)*

Ex.19 They have ambitious ***growth plans*** *in Europe [...] (F2010 2992)*

Equal opportunity

Ex.20 The University is committed to equality in employment. (U2010s 1/656)

Ex.21 Pure Recruitment Group ***aims to promote diversity and equal opportunity*** *through its work. (F2010 2860)*

Legal status

Ex.22 Barclays Bank PLC is ***registered*** *in England and* ***authorized*** *and* ***regulated*** *by the Financial Services Authority. (F2010 384)*

Location

*Ex.23 The company's new head office, which is one of the most advanced in design in Europe, **is situated** within easy reach of major cities, yet close to Yorkshire [...] (F1974 7)*

Others

*Ex.24 We are **open** from 08.30 to 18.00 […] (U2010s 1622).*

An observation of the linguistic features in attributes that I made in Section 7.3 is that process types are strategically manipulated to enhance evaluative meanings. There are cases where mental process types are used instead of relational process to increase the positive evaluation of a statement and personalize the organizational identity. Compare below example 25 which uses relational process with example 26 which uses mental process. I have argued that these discursive strategies of business discourse are adopted by universities because these techniques appear frequently in 2010 university job advertisements and both 1970s and 2010 financial job advertisements. It should be noted that universities do not always adopt the discursive strategies used by business organizations.

*Ex.25 The Department of Architecture and Built Environment **has** an international reputation for its teaching and research [...] (U2010s 1/1907)*

*Ex.26 The Geography Department at the University of Hull **enjoys** a growing international reputation for excellence in research and teaching [...] (U2010s 1266)*

In addition, the promotional messages are presupposed, as shown in example 27, which renders the message more difficult to challenge.

*Ex.27 **Building on the existing academic strengths** of the University of Exeter, the 30 million pound Environment and Sustainability Institute [...] (U2010s 1/120)*

In some cases, universities are construed as lucrative businesses and service providers offering services to students who are conceptualized as customers, thus corroborating previous studies which investigate prospectuses (Askehave, 2007; Hui,

2009). Universities are construed as offering services to students who are sometimes referred to as ‘customers’ or ‘clients’. The words used to describe the actions that universities are construed as performing seem to be loaded with business ideology such as ‘invest’. Universities also describe themselves in terms of their wealth. In so doing, universities are presented as lucrative businesses. Furthermore, staff in some posts are required to generate financial income for the organization. The description of position duties also contains the word ‘customer’. For instance, potential applicants are required to work in a ‘customer-focused’ manner. Students are constructed as a commodity from which profit is to be made. All of these intensify the portrayal of universities as business organizations.

Authors have argued that entrepreneurialism and competitiveness are increasing in saliency in university discourse (Harley et al., 2004; Mautner, 2005). They argue that entrepreneurism derives from the need of each department and university to compete against each other for survival and financial security, resulting in a business model being adopted by university management (Haas & Fischman, 2010; Maringe, 2011; Ritchie, 2002; Urban, 2008). This claim is in line with the findings of my study which indicate that universities are discursively constructed as being in competition with each other and engaging in self-aggrandisement.

8.3.3 Changing positioning of applicants

The representations of applicants in university job advertisements have changed in many respects. In contrast with the 1970s, the 2010s applicants are construed as enthusiastic for challenge and independent. There is a steep rise in the instances where applicants are construed as Actors who perform duties. In addition, they are discursively constructed as competing for financial resources. As such, I would argue that university

staff are positioned as doing more work and competing intensely, but that the work environment is discursively constructed as suitable for them because they are positioned as enthusiastic for a challenge.

There seems to be shift towards increasing the responsibility and agency to staff and reframing jobs as opportunity for applicants. This can be seen from the word 'opportunity' in the phraseological pattern in the box below which is mentioned earlier in Section 5.3.3.

This is an exciting + OPPORTUNITY + (for + PERSON SPECIFICATION) + (to + JOIN/WORK/BENEFIT + EVALUATION + ORGANIZATION/TEAM)

This phraseological pattern frames the job as an opportunity for applicants to shine. This framing does not appear in the 1970s university job advertisements but does occur in financial job advertisements in the 1970s and 2010s. Furthermore, a job advertisement addresses the potential applicants 'Looking for a challenge?' As such, applicants are constructed as eager to find a job and a challenge to prove themselves. The job is beneficial to applicants whose thirst for a challenge is ever-present. In addition, example 18 (see page 128) indicates that some jobs require applicants to be able to work independently. The discursive construction of applicants as and independent can be interpreted as a reflection of neoliberal ideology[7] which emphasizes individual's responsibility for their own achievements while downplaying the social and institutional condition of individual's success (Tomlinson, 2005).

[7] I would like to Thank Dr.Paul Wickens for pointing this out.

Another noticeable change is a dramatic increase in the instances where applicants are construed as performing duties as shown in Table 7-17 in Chapter 7. The interpretation of this increase may be that the 2010s university job advertisements are more explicit about the duties. Another interpretation is that there is more work. In fact, Henkel (1997) points out that workload of academics has drastically increased due to the marketization of higher education.

Finally, there academics are repositioned as entrepreneurs competing for financial resources. This can be seen from the representation of applicants as having the ability to or the experience of attracting funding. This can be seen from the requirements 'significant grant capture' (example 116 on page 303). Thus, academics need skills to generate income. Alhough the example in my data only reflects competition for state funding, Slaughter & Leslie's (1997) book notes how academics also need to find financial resources from businesses through, for instance, consultancy or patents.

8.4 CONSTRUAL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYER AND APPLICANTS

8.4.1 Reducing the power differential

We now move on to the question of how the relationship between universities and staff is construed in discourse. The general picture is that while in 1970s university job advertisements universities are construed as being distant and having higher power than applicants, in 2010s job advertisements, universities are construed as more equal and closer to applicants. This tendency can be observed from various linguistic features.

The 2010s university job advertisements construe universities as requiring but they do not impose, rather they mitigate requirements, as shown in examples 28 and 29 below.

*Ex.28 Due to recent government policy changes on immigration, we **can only accept** applications from Non EEA candidates who hold Tier 1 status […] (U2010s 1414)*

*Ex.29 **Regrettably** we **are unable to consider** applications from candidates who require… (U2010s 1472)*

The requirement is phrased as an inability and is apologetic, as can be seen from the word 'regrettably', which is a politeness strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1983). This linguistic strategy is absent from 1970s university job advertisements but appears in those in the 2010s. In financial job advertisements, on the other hand, this linguistic strategy has already been occurring since the 1970s.

Furthermore, the use of modals when job advertisements state requirements indicates that the power relation between universities and applicants is construed as being more equal. Job advertisements state requirements by portraying applicants as performing duties and having attributes. When universities state requirements for applicants, they prefer using modalization (epistemic modality such as 'will') instead of modulation (obligational modality such as 'must'). These are listed with examples reproduced from chapter 7 below.

<u>*Modalization*</u>

*Ex.30 Successful candidates **will** preferably have some good research outputs or have publications at an advanced stage (U2010s 1231)*

<u>*Modulation*</u>

*Ex.31 Applicants **must** be graduates and have had administrative experience […]. (U1974 2)*

The proportion of modals use shows that 2010s university job advertisements resemble financial job advertisements in preferring modalization, whereas 1970s university job advertisements use modulation more frequently. This is consistent with Fairclough's (1993) finding that new universities in 1990s tend to use 'will' instead of obligational modals such as 'must'. He further argues that this reduction in the power differential is motivated by the attempt to sell jobs to applicants.

University job advertisements in 2010 have become more conversational and interactive, as can be seen from words referring to potential applicants (see more details in Section 7.4). The overarching trend in university job advertisements is a decrease in the frequency of *candidature* and an increase in the frequency of use of personal pronouns. Use of the personal pronoun 'you' is conversational and directly addresses the reader, a linguistic strategy frequently used in advertising discourse (Leech, 1966). The use of words related to candidature is more formal and distant than personal pronouns.

Candidature

Ex.31 ***Candidates*** *should hold a good science degree and doctorate in relevant subjects.* (U1974 10)

Ex.32 The successful ***applicant*** *will be a self-starter […]*(F1974 15)

Personal pronoun

Ex.34 ***You*** *will be expected to have research expertise […]* (U2010s 055)

Ex.35 To gain our favours [sic], ***you*** *must be aged 25-45, successful in your present job, full of enthusiasm and integrity […]* (F1971 2)

8.4.2 Job-selling

Another aspect of the relationship between organizations and applicants construed in discourse is that recent university job advertisements are more persuasive, even edging towards selling the job to potential applicants. When construed as recruiting, universities seem to show enthusiasm and desire for new members, framing recruitment activities using phrases identical to those of business. While the 1970s university job advertisements often use the phrase 'applications are invited for', the 2010 university job advertisements and financial job advertisements tend to use 'we are looking for' or 'we are looking to appoint/ recruit'. The phrases used in 1970s university job advertisements are passivized with no agency. The 2010s university job advertisements, in contrast, use the personal pronoun 'we', which is interactive, the progressive aspect, which is dynamic, and the modality of inclination 'looking to', which conveys the volition of universities. It is thus apparent that 2010s university job advertisements are aligning themselves with financial job advertisements, using phrases that convey their volition and desire to attract potential applicants to apply for the job.

In addition, universities in the 2010s incentivize potential applicants to apply for the job through actions that applicants are construed as performing, just like financial job advertisements, while in the 1970s university job advertisements this is a very rare practice. Amongst these actions are 1) *seeking a job*, 2) *joining* and 3) *benefiting*, which discursively construct potential applicants as wanting and benefiting from the job. Examples from chapter 7 are reproduced below.

<u>*Seeking a job*</u>

Ex.36 […] the role of Experimental Medicine Business may just be what you ***have been searching for****. (U2010s 202)*

Joining

*Ex.37 The successful candidates **will be joining** a world-renowned research group […] (U2010s 1/1645)*

Benefiting

*Ex.38 Every encouragement would be given to the successful candidate to **obtain** further qualifications. (U1972 2)*

These examples show the persuasiveness of job advertisements, using incentives such as good work conditions and professional development opportunities. The increase in sales-oriented language of this kind supports Fairclough's (1993) claim about the increasing saliency of promotional language in the discursive practices of universities. It also suggests that a buyer-customer relationship is used to conceptualize the relationship between universities and applicants in recruitment discourse.

8.5 CHANGING GENRE PRACTICES: FROM INFORMING TO PROMOTING

The overarching trend identified in genre analysis is that university job advertisements have become more promotional, with self-promotion being a common practice among university job advertisements. A four-way comparison of move structures in job advertisements indicates the changing genre practice of university job advertisements and two new emerging genres within them (for more details see Chapter 6). In university job advertisements, the striking increase in the frequency of *Move 1: Establishing credentials* is notable while the frequency of this move is relatively stable in financial job advertisements. The rise of this move indicates that self-promotion has become an established communicative function of university job advertisements. The use of logos and strap lines has also been adopted in university job advertisement but these components have been prevalent in financial job advertisements since the 1970s.

However, it seems that universities do not always employ the same strategies as business. In terms of the use of different typefaces in order to highlight some content, it is found that financial job advertisements use a bold typeface to highlight self-promotion and salary, making them very promotional. University job advertisements, on the other hand, frequently use typefaces to emphasize important information such as application closing dates.

In some respects, university job advertisements are more advanced in promoting the organization through job advertisements. There are two innovative genres – employer profiles and employer videos – which were found in university job advertisements but not financial job advertisements at the time of data collocation. As discussed, in Chapter 6, these two genres represent a clear promotional tool, employing multiple semiotic resources to promote the employer organization and the job. What is more, they have embedded within them various genres such as documentary, interview and travel programme.

8.6 PHRASEOLOGY OF SELF-PROMOTION

This section continues the discussion of how promotion and persuasion have become a common practice in university job advertisements and how this is reflected in the recurrent phrases used in job advertisements. A corpus analysis indicates the phrases in job advertisements that are used to promote the organization and to persuade potential applicants to apply (see Section 5.3.3). This further supports the claim that promotion is becoming more prevalent in university discourse (Fairclough, 1993; Sauntson & Morrish, 2011). The phraseology of university job advertisements and financial job advertisements was investigated through the analysis of lexical bundles retrieved via WordSmith Tools 5.0 (Scott, 2008). It was categorized according to the

classification scheme that I developed based on the themes and communicative functions of lexical bundles. The classification scheme is shown in Table 8-2, below, together with examples.

Thematic/functional categories	**Sub-categories**	**example**
1. Organization	1.1 Organizational identification	is one of the
	1.2 Organizational desire	we are looking for
2. Applicant identification		successful candidate will be
3. Job specification	3.1 Attractiveness	this is an exciting
	3.2 Obligation stance	must be able to
	3.3 work	work as part of
	3.4 contract	post is fixed-term
	3.5 knowledge/degree	a PhD or equivalent
	3.6 experience	experience of working in
	3.7 ability	the ability to work
	3.8 salary	the salary range will
4. Attributive and deictic bundles	4.1 attributive bundles	a wide range of
	4.2 Deictic bundles	at the end of
5. Soliciting response	5.1 Qualifying directives	if you wish to
	5.2 Application procedure	to apply for this
	5.3 Further contact	enquiries can be made
6. Equal Opportunity	6.1 Statement	an equal opportunity employer
	6.2 Award	a stonewall diversity champion
7. Others	-	are unable to apply

Table 8-2 Thematic and functional categories of lexical bundles with examples

While most of the recurring lexical bundles mark the genre of job advertisements (*job specification*, *contact information* and *applicant identification*) lexical bundles within the *organization* and *job specification* categories are employed for self-promotion and persuasion. Examples are given below.

Ex.39 Edge Hill University ***is one of the*** *fastest growing universities in the UK […] (U2010s 1/253)*

Ex.40 Our Investment Bank ***is one of the*** *world's top global investment banks […] (F2010 0974)*

Ex.41 ***This is an exciting*** *opportunity for a research-active academic to join this leading department as a Senior Lecturer in Functional Polymers. (U2010s 1/455)*

Ex.42 ***This is an excellent*** *opportunity to work for an exciting, entrepreneurial organization […] (F2010 1845)*

Examples 39 and 40 from the *organization* category show that the lexical bundle 'is one of the' is used for self-promotion. Examples 41 and 42 from *job specification: attractiveness* show that the lexical bundles 'this is an exciting' and 'this is an excellent' are used to sell the job to potential applicants by presenting what they can expect in return, namely, a good working environment and opportunities for professional development. What is more, these lexical bundles are part of a bigger phraseological pattern, and embedded within these phraseological patterns are evaluative items such as 'fast-growing' in example 38 and 'leading' in example 40. These evaluative items discursively construct the desirable identity of the employer organization. As noted in Section 5.3.3, there are many similarities between the semantic categories of these evaluative items in university and financial job corpus. However, the university job corpus contains more evaluative items associated with intellectual excitement, whereas the financial job corpus contains more evaluative items associated with profitability and reputation.

It should be noted that while promotion is increasing in saliency, universities still maintain their authority as gate-keepers. Apart from self-promotion and persuasion, a lexical bundle analysis also indicates that in the university job corpus there are more lexical bundles related to procedures and requirements than in the financial job corpus. This discourse of imposition (what the applicants must do) sits alongside the discourse of promotion.

8.7 SYNERGIZING CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS WITH CORPUS LINGUISTICS

This section discusses the synergy between critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics – a secondary aim of my thesis. Overall, this thesis accords with previous studies in terms of how CDA and corpus linguistics can reinforce each other.

The main strength of corpus linguistics is that it enables the analysis of large data sets and strengthens claims with statistical analysis (Baker, 2006; Baker et al., 2008). The corpus linguistic method employed facilitated the analysis of 6,000 job advertisements via collocation analysis and lexical bundles analysis. Collocation analysis captures evaluative adjectives which are the immediate co-text of organizational reference terms. Lexical bundle analysis captures recurring strings of words in the corpus, facilitating the mapping of data.

The statistical analysis of corpus data strengthens claims and makes some patterns more visible. The comparison of semantic categories of evaluative adjectives shows the values that are associated with either universities or business organizations in a more objective manner. Furthermore, the correlation between the ordering of the

semantic categories of evaluative adjectives in academic and business job corpora is not easily noticed by looking at ordering alone. Spearman's Rank Correlation produces a statistical finding that they do indeed correlate positively. Statistical comparison, in consequence, gives more credibility to the claim and reveals a pattern that is difficult to observe otherwise.

In addition, corpus linguistics can aid the interpretative process via the use of a general reference corpus (Mautner, 2009; Stubbs, 1997). In this study, the interpretation of the word 'hire' vs 'appoint' and 'has seen + GROWTH' is derived from consultation with a general reference corpus (the BNC). The phrase 'has seen + GROWTH' has been discussed in Chapter 7. Analysing this from the perspective of a process type classification scheme (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) does not seem to be insightful because I can only say that it is a perceptive mental process type. Looking at the collocates of 'growth' in the phrase 'has seen' in the BNC, I find that they are mostly used to talk about increases in sales. In the data, this phrase is used to talk about students. Via consultation of the BNC, I can then argue that students are implicitly portrayed as a commodity from which profit is to be made. This process points to a limitation of the analytical framework and how corpus linguistics can overcome it.

Critical discourse analysis can make contributions to corpus linguistics by rendering the interpretation of corpus data more meaningful. Critical discourse analysis informs how corpora should be approached and interpreted. This has led to a new classification of evaluative language specifically used for organizational description and a new classification of lexical bundles. I decided not to use existing frameworks (Biber, Conrad & Cortes, 2004 for lexical bundles; Martin & White, 2005 for evaluative language) because they are too general, aim to answering different research questions

and are based on different kinds of data. Given that my research is based on a very specific genre and aims to identify marketized discourse, it requires a classification scheme that is more specific and meaningful to the analysis and interpretation.

Furthermore, a close reading of texts provides a rich description and is thus indispensable to a critical discourse analysis project (Mautner, 2009). One of the limitations of corpus linguistics is that it is a lexical-based search with a focus on the immediate co-text and frequent items. This explains why corpus linguistic analysis does not yield many interesting findings when it comes to the representation of applicants. A close reading, on the other hand, allows me to see infrequent items. For instance, some positions require applicants to be 'customer-focused' or to have experience in 'significant grant capture'. These words do not occur frequently and appear quite far from terms referring to applicants, and thus they are not captured during corpus analysis.

A close reading of data has led to a much richer analysis than corpus linguistics alone. During close reading, I not only noticed process types but also other linguistic features relevant to the analysis of marketized discourse. For example, I looked at presupposition, politeness, modals, metaphor and lexis related to customers. Analysing these linguistic features in context enabled me to see how they cluster together to enhance positive meaning and convey a self-promotional message. Many interesting findings about the representation of applicants derive from a close reading of the data.

8.8 CRITIQUE OF THE MARKETIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In this section, I offer my critique of the marketization of higher education from a discourse perspective. Before discussing marketized discourse, I would like to state my position with regard to the marketization of higher education. I am not arguing that

universities should return to an elite status. I believe that marketization reminds us that universities are not outside society. Rather they are part of it, responsible for its well-being and accountable to society for the budgets allocated to them. As such, they should engage with society, which also includes business organizations. However, the accounts from several studies reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 and my findings indicate that there is an imbalance in the power relation as shown in discourse. Market ideology and business practices are gaining the upper hand to the point of colonizing the identity of universities. My position is that while marketization has the potential to benefit universities, it needs to be adapted or, in Chapleo's (2011) word, 'domesticated', and universities need to be selective about which aspects of business practices they adopt.

I will now discuss some major points in relation to the discourse and sociocultural practices of higher education marketing. Specifically, I problematize and discuss: 1) the ways in which university identity is constructed; 2) the discursive construction of students as customers; 3) the ways in which business ideology is displacing traditional university values; 4) the increasing saliency of promotional discourse.

To begin with, one impact of marketization on university discourse is the representation of universities as corporations and entrepreneurs. Such representation entails profit-making which is not appropriate for education institutions. This is because it may have a negative impact on the identity of universities as public institutions which educate students and play an important role in the betterment of society. To cite some examples from my data, there are instances where universities are construed as 'focusing research investment' and staff being required to have 'significant grant

capture' capability. Such language constructs research as existing to make money rather than discoveries. It narrowly defines the value of research based on economic return and downplays social cohesion and other less tangible results that research can lead to. When universities are construed as 'working' (i.e. the activities in which they are involved – see Section 7.2.1 for more explanation), the word 'teaching' is nowhere to be found, as if this is no longer the job of universities. Instead, universities 'offer' courses, thereby de-emphasizing their teaching role and reframing it in terms of service provision.

The second point to be discussed relates to how students are commodified in discourse. This objectification and commodification of students sounds rather covetous and discursively constructs a relationship of exploitation. In some cases, students are discursively constructed as partners of universities, thereby empowering students. However, there are instances where students are implicitly construed as a commodity from which there is profit to be made, as shown in the phrase 'has seen an unprecedented growth in PhD students' (for more discussion see Section 7.2.2) or that they are 'targets' to be met. The conceptualization of students as customers is also problematic in itself. The concepts of market and customer are themselves problematized in cognitive linguistic studies. This is because it has been claimed that in marketing discourse, customers and markets are often conceptualized as territory to be captured and fought over (Koller, 2004). It is the goal of marketing to capture the minds of customers in order to make them buy the product and stay loyal to the brand. Such an aggressive and even mercenary conceptualization does not sit well with institutions that educate and nurture students.

The third point relates to how the use of the business ideology can obscure the value of universities. To illustrate, some positions require applicants to work in a 'customer-focused' manner. This kind of description seems to involve catering for customers in order to make more profit from them. In fact, positions should require applicants to be 'attentive', 'caring' and 'supportive'. These values are related to CARING which, as I have argued in the corpus analysis (Section 5.2.5), is strongly associated with universities. By replacing these values with business-loaded terms such as 'customer-focused', universities are obscuring the duties of staff and undermining their own values by substituting them with those of business organizations. Further supporting evidence comes from the analysis of evaluative adjectives which indicates that universities are aligning their values system with that of business organizations. Socially-oriented values such as CARING are marginalized while competitiveness and reputation are foregrounded. There is no doubt that reputation is important to universities, but underrepresenting socially-oriented values downplays the social side of universities as public institutions. In so doing, universities run the risk of discursively constructing themselves as profit-driven corporations, which will in turn alienate academics and create an unhealthy relationship with students who might feel that they are being exploited.

On the other hand, I think that the presence of promotional language per se is not necessarily a problem. The issue of publicity and the communication of universities' identity and their role in society can assist universities to engage and communicate with society at large. As Chapleo and Mighall points out, branding and communicating institutional identity to staff and the public are 'not about dreaming up hollow promises,

but defining what an institution can authentically offer' (Chapleo & Mighall, 2009 cited in Chapleo, 2011: 105). Marketing communication can be instrumental in communicating the value of education in developing society, economically, socially and intellectually. Once 'domesticated', marketing might be a useful tool for managing universities and communicating their values to the public. This can in turn inspire people to study. In recruitment discourse, it can inform potential applicants about what the institution is and play a part in orientating them as new members of the university.

8.9 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

This study focuses only on marketized discourse in job advertisements. This genre construes the relationship between universities and staff in the recruitment process. Nonetheless, it does raise an issue of how the relationship between universities and students is construed as well. The findings related to the construal of the relationship between universities, staff and students in this genre, however, are not extensive. Therefore, future studies can expand on whether or not the relationship between universities and students is construed in the same way as that of business organizations and customers. This could be done via a comparison of advertisements about courses at universities with an equivalent genre in business contexts, namely, commodity or service advertisements. A diachronic comparison could also be made, which might then yield insights into how the construal of the university-student relationship has changed and what aspects of the seller-customer relationship have been adopted by universities.

In addition, future study could compare two genres or investigate genres that have not yet been studied. For instance, it would be interesting to study social media

such as university Facebook pages or Twitter accounts. Some other genres that have not been extensively studied are Wikipedia, blogs and press releases. In the UK, it was interesting to see universities' advertising campaigns during the Olympics to see how they exploited the event for publicity – a strategy used by business organizations.

The phenomenon of marketization is very broad and can thus be approached from various perspectives. This thesis has undertaken a rigorous analysis of data via Fairclough's approach to critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics, but they might also be approached via other theories, e.g. critical metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black, 2004). While this study touches on metaphor in Chapter 7, a more systematic investigation of metaphoric expressions from the perspective of conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) could be undertaken. This would be suitable as a different project given that such an approach focuses on cognition while Fairclough emphasises a more socially-oriented approach to language.

This study focuses on only one level of education. It has been noted that marketization occurs at all levels of education (Tomlinson, 2005). As a result, future studies could investigate and compare genres from different educational levels to see the similarities or differences in how marketized discourse is manifested.

Another point to note is that marketization has been implemented in various public institutions. Mautner (2010) has written a book investigating four different domains affected by marketized discourse: government, education, church and personal branding. Healthcare systems do not seem to receive much investigation in terms of marketized discourse. In the UK, the NHS is a potential candidate for investigation because it too has been subject to marketization policies. A comparison of marketized

discourse in different types of public institutions might yield insights into whether marketized discourse will have similar manifestations in different institutional discourses.

This study only focuses on the UK context but the marketization of higher education is occurring globally. Future study could research the marketization of higher education on an international scale. It could for example compare countries where marketization is deep-rooted, such as the U.S., with the countries where marketization has less influence, such as India.

Another aspect of marketization is the social and psychological context of text production and reception. In this study I have reviewed studies, read policies surrounding job advertisement production and interviewed HR staff. However, a more rigorous ethnographic study could be conducted on the process of job advertisement writing and reading. A psycholinguistic study on the reception of job advertisements could make a contribution in terms of whether the reader is captured by marketized discourse. Furthermore, it would be interesting to see if the writers of job advertisements consciously write promotional messages, whether they feel obliged to do so because of institutional pressure, or if in fact they simply do so naturally.

8.10 CONCLUSION

This study has shown that Fairclough's (1993) claim about universities' discourse being 'colonized' by businesses' discourse is largely true, at least in terms of job advertisements. Many similarities between university and financial job advertisements have been identified. A diachronic analysis has shown a prevailing pattern in which university job advertisements are moving towards a confluence with

financial job advertisements. It also seems that the values of universities are being 'corroded' (Slater & Tonkiss, 2001: 25 cited in Mautner, 2010: 30). The identities of institutions and people involved are reconstructed discursively along the lines of business organizations.

However, the convergence between universities' and businesses' discursive practices is not complete. In university job advertisements, there are still more instances where they impose requirements and construct themselves as a figure of authority. What is more, they do not use all of the linguistic strategies identified in financial job advertisements. It seems therefore that universities do indeed have agency to be selective about what to adopt. In this thesis, I argue that universities should be more selective about what to take from business discourse. They can increase the saliency of socially-oriented values when presenting their organizational image and avoid the use of 'customers'. Universities are public institutions serving the public interest and should construct their identity accordingly.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: TEMPLATE FOR JOB ADVERTISEMENTS

College

Sub Unit if applicable

Associate Research Fellow (Ref. No. - to be completed by HR)

Salary

The College wishes to recruit an Associate Research Fellow to support the work of Academic's name. This funding body funded post is available immediately/or from DATE to DATE. The successful applicant will insert summary of work to be done.

The post will include details of duties. The successful applicant will be able to present information on research progress and outcomes, communicate complex information, orally, in writing and electronically and prepare proposals and applications to external bodies.

Applicants will possess a relevant PhD and be able to demonstrate sufficient knowledge in the discipline and of research methods and techniques to work within established research programmes. Applicants will be able to insert skills and knowledge required.

The starting salary will be from £amount up to £amount on Grade E, depending on qualifications and experience.

For further information please contact Academic's name, e-mail name@ex.ac.uk or telephone (01392) 72XXXX. To apply, Please complete an OPTION INCLUDE FOR POSTS WHICH ARE BEING ADVERTISED FOR THE RLMT application form OPTION FOR POSTS NOT REQUIRING RLMT, your CV and covering letter with the contact details of three referees to, quoting the job reference **number**.

The closing date for completed applications is **Date**. Interviews are expected to take place on date.

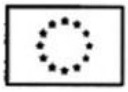
If going on jobs.ac.uk, please ensure that the advert word count is under 540.

Standard Occupational Classification (SOC STEM/M 2321/ Social Science 2322/ Humanities 2329)

Minimum rate of pay is £15,641 p/a - Adverts to appear in Jobcentre Plus and www.jobs.ac.uk

Please place in journal(s) as below:	**For insertion on:**
UOE website/VB	date 2010
Jobs.ac.uk	date 2010
Job Centre	date 2010
Press/Journal	date 2010
Standard Occupational Classification (SOC)	_ _ _ _

Approved by _____



Cornwall Only

Source:

http://www.exeter.ac.uk/staff/employment/recruitment/templatelibrary/advertisements/

APPENDIX 2: UNIVERSITIES WHICH PROVIDE INFORMATION ABOUT RECRUITMENT PROCESS AND JOB ADVERTISEMENTS GUIDELINES WITH THE LINK

University of Oxford	http://www.admin.ox.ac.uk/personnel/recruit/recruitproc/vacancysetup/
University of Glasgow	http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/humanresources/recruitment/
University of Southampton	http://www.southampton.ac.uk/hr/recruitment/
University of Leicester	http://www2.le.ac.uk/offices/jobs/help/guidance
University of Exeter	http://www.exeter.ac.uk/staff/employment/recruitment/advertisement/
University of Durham	http://www.dur.ac.uk/hr/policies/recruitment/
University of York	http://www.york.ac.uk/admin/hr/managers/recruitment/handbook/advertising.htm
University of Bristol	http://www.bristol.ac.uk/hr/resourcing/practicalguidance/advertising/writeadvert.html
University of Reading	www.reading.ac.uk/humres-advert.aspx
University of Bath	http://www.bath.ac.uk/hr/recruitment/recruitmentcode.html
University of	www.bradford.ac.uk/human-resources

Bradford	
University of Nottingham	http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/hr/guidesandsupport/recruitmentandinduction/recruitment/index.aspx
University of Essex	http://www.essex.ac.uk/personnel/Pol&Proc/policies/R&SBooklet.pdf
University College London	http://www.ucl.ac.uk/hr/docs/recruitment.php
Imperial College London	http://www3.imperial.ac.uk/hr/procedures/recruitment/recruitmentadvertising
The University of Sheffield	http://www.shef.ac.uk/hr/recruitment/guidance/ad
De Montford University	http://www.dmu.ac.uk/about-dmu/jobs-at-dmu/the-recruitment-process.aspx
University of East Anglia	http://www.uea.ac.uk/hr/public/employment/recruitmentandselection
University of Hull	http://www2.hull.ac.uk/administration/staffdevelopment/policydocuments.aspx
University of Kent	http://www.kent.ac.uk/hr-managementinformation/recruitment/advertising.html
University of Surrey	http://www.surrey.ac.uk/about/corporate/policies/recruitment_code_of_practice.pdf
Leeds Metropolitan University	http://www.leedsmet.ac.uk/staff/files/GUIDANCE_ON_WRITING_JOB_DESCRIPTIONS_AND_EMPLOYEE_SPECIFICATIONS.pdf

University of Strathclyde	http://www.strath.ac.uk/hr/recruitingatstrathclyde/draftingtheadvert/
City University	http://www.city.ac.uk/about/working-at-city/application-and-selection-process

APPENDIX 3: JOB CATEGORIES

This appendix gives frequency breakdowns of job categories in the 1970s job advertisements and 2010s sub-samples and also the information about the position in each job advertisements . This is to give readers a rough idea of corpus composition. University job advertisements comprise 4 job categories:

1) managerial including head of department, chair, manager and director;
2) academic staff such as lecturer and researcher;
3) support services staff such as administrative officer, web designer and librarian; and
4) studentship

The frequency breakdown of university job categories is shown in the table below:

Job categories (university)	**Frequency**	
	1970s	**2010s**
managerial	3	9
academic staff	41	29
support staff services	9	14
studentship	7	8
Total	60	60

Table A3 - 1 Frequency breakdown of university job categories

The jobs in financial job advertisements can be categorized into 8 job categories:

1) executive/management positions such as managers, head, vice-president and director

2) analyst e.g. portfolio analyst, operational risk analyst

3) accountants,

4) consultant/specialist such as finance senior consultant

5) programmers and other technology-related posts such as Java developer, algorithmic trading technologist

6) sales representatives,

7) legal staff such as company solicitor and legal advisor; and

8) Others such as personal assistant and investment negotiators

The frequency breakdown of financial job advertisements is shown in the table below

Job categories (financial jobs)	**Frequency**	
	1970s	**2010s**
executive/management positions	25	30
analysts	5	12
accountants	5	3
consultant/specialist	3	5
programmers and other technology-related posts	2	5
sales representatives	11	1
legal staff	4	0
others	5	4
Total	60	60

Table A3 - 2 Frequency breakdown of financial job categories

The position title of each job advertisement is presented in the tables below.

Code	**Positions**
U1971 1	Assistant director of research or senior assistant in research
U1971 2	Lectureships and fellowships in drama
U1971 3	Computer manager
U1971 4	Assistant librarian
U1971 5	University lectureship in classical philology
U1971 6	Chair of international relations
U1971 7	Lecturer in soil mechanics and foundation engineering
U1971 8	Lectureship in zoology
U1971 9	Lectureship in government
U1971 10	Lecturer in law
U1971 11	Administrative assistants

U1971 12	Lecturer in finance and accounting
U1971 13	Senior lectureship or lectureship in pharmacology
U1971 14	Lecturer in chemistry
U1971 15	Lectureship in educational psychology
U1972 1	Research fellowship and research associateship in the sociology of education
U1972 2	Lectureship in bioengineering
U1972 3	Readership or university lectureship in criminology
U1972 4	Lecturer in Spanish
U1972 5	Studentships in the economics, economic geography and economic history of Latin America
U1972 6	Assistant secretary
U1972 7	Deputy director (production services)
U1972 8	University assistant lectureship
U1972 9	Research assistant
U1972 10	Lectureship or assistant lectureship in psychology
U1972 11	Administrative assistants - office of the bursar
U1972 12	Senior lecturer in French
U1972 13	Research studentship in metallurgy
U1972 14	Shell research studentship in the economics of the Middle East
U1972 15	Readership and lectureships in statistics
U1973 1	Lectureship in physical geography
U1973 2	Senior administrator
U1973 3	Professor of propulsion technology
U1973 4	Lecturer in social studies
U1973 5	Lecturer in highway construction
U1973 6	Chair of forestry and natural resources
U1973 7	Technical liaison officer
U1973 8	Associate lecturer in music
U1973 9	Lectureship
U1973 10	Lecturer in the Department of Parasitology
U1973 11	Post-doctoral research assistantship
U1973 12	Research fellowship
U1973 13	Research fellowship
U1973 14	Lecturer in science education
U1973 15	Research studentship in photochemistry
U1974 1	Lecturer in French
U1974 2	The university lectureship
U1974 3	Staff tutorship in roman archaeology
U1974 4	Research fellowship in statistics
U1974 5	Lectureship in law
U1974 6	Research fellow and research associate

U1974 7	Secretary of the Faculty of Engineering and Applied Science
U1974 8	Senior lectureship or readership in plant taxonomy
U1974 9	Lecturer in education
U1974 10	Senior lecturer or lecturer in the Department of French
U1974 11	Senior lecturer/lecturer
U1974 12	University assistant lectureship in European history
U1974 13	Senior lecturer or lecturer, research fellow or research assistant
U1974 14	Research fellow in ship science
U1974 15	Visiting research fellowships

Table A3 - 3 Position titles in each 1970s university job advertisement

Code	**Position**
U2010s0001	Director of Employability
U2010s0055	Reader/Senior Lecturer in Operational Research/Management Science
U2010s1011	Part time Lecturer - Principal Study
U2010s1052	PhD Studentship
U2010s1118	NIHR Academic Clinical Lecturers (ACL)
U2010s1165	Senior Research Associate
U2010s1231	Lecturer in Accounting
U2010s1266	Research Associate
U2010s1302	Lay Members of the Board of Governors
U2010s1378	Research Technician
U2010s138	PhD Studentship
U2010s1414	Customer Service Advisor
U2010s1457	Chair/Reader in Accounting
U2010s1519	Teaching Fellowship Vacancy
U2010s1564	PhD Studentship on Autonomous Operation of Multi-Agent Space Systems
U2010s1622	Service Desk Specialist
U2010s1683	Clinical Research Fellow in Liaison Psychiatry
U2010s1728	Doctoral research studentships

U2010s1753	Lecturer in HRM/Senior Lecturer in HRM
U2010s175	Departmental Lecturership
U2010s1812	Research Advisor
U2010s1892	Genetic Resources Unit Technician
U2010s202	Business Manager
U2010s272	Library Assistant
U2010s312	Research Associate in Epidemiology/Health Services Research
U2010s375	Research Associate
U2010s440	Chair in Hydrogen and Fuel Cell Engineering
U2010s472	Associate Professor in Cultural Policy Studies
U2010s496	Lecturers/Senior Lecturers (2 posts)
U2010s966	Research Associate
U2010s 1/11	PhD Studentship in Obstetrics & Gynaecology
U2010s 1/120	Senior Lecturers/Lecturers in Clean Technologies (Renewable Energy)
U2010s 1/1405	Department Administrator
U2010s 1/1472	Head of Department
U2010s 1/1529	Cloud Computing Services Developer
U2010s 1/1575	Research Director
U2010s 1/1645	Research Associate in the Dynamics Group
U2010s 1/1703	Research Fellow (Fixed Term)
U2010s 1/1763	Regional Officer / International Officer for Central and South Asia
U2010s 1/182	EPSRC - Funded Ph.D. Studentships
U2010s 1/1868	Research Specialist
U2010s 1/1907	Chair in Architecture
U2010s 1/1972	Teaching and Research Technician
U2010s 1/2433	Postdoctoral Research Fellow

U2010s 1/2484	Biotronix Workshop Manager
U2010s 1/2526	Judicial Institute Associate
U2010s 1/264	Chair
U2010s 1/330	Bioinformatician
U2010s 1/357	Lecturer/Senior Lecturer in Finance
U2010s 1/437	Research Associate
U2010s 1/551	Research Associate
U2010s 1/656	Professor in Water or Environmental Engineering (Ref: E20143)
U2010s 4/100	Web Designer
U2010s 4/14	Three Lectureships in Phychology
U2010s 4/149	Senior Administrative Officer PG Student Administration & Assessment
U2010s 4/221	Engineering and Technology PhD Studentship
U2010s 4/305	Lecturer / Senior Teaching Fellow
U2010s 4/376	Business Development Manager - Power Networks
U2010s 4/432	Teaching Fellow in Plant Biology and Biodiversity
U2010s 4/53	Database Administrator

Table A3 - 4 Position titles in each 2010s university job advertisement

Code	**Position**
F1971 1	Insurance sales representative
F1971 2	Insurance sales representative
F1971 3	Insurance sales representative
F1971 4	Vice-president
F1971 5	Executive
F1971 6	Controller and Deputy treasurer
F1971 7	Finance house representatives
F1971 8	Chartered accountant
F1971 9	Bank Administration
F1971 10	Insurance sales representative
F1971 11	Sales and marketing controller
F1971 12	Manager/accountant
F1971 13	Deputy manager

F1971 14	Financial controller
F1971 15	Solicitor
F1972 1	Manager
F1972 2	Legal adviser
F1972 3	Taxation specialist
F1972 4	Management accountant
F1972 5	Senior system analyst and senior programmers
F1972 6	Life assurance consultant
F1972 7	Assistant manager - treasury
F1972 8	International leasing executive
F1972 9	Management accountant
F1972 10	Manager
F1972 11	Accountant
F1972 12	Analyst
F1972 13	Company solicitor
F1972 14	Personal assistant
F1972 15	General manager
F1973 1	Bullion dealer
F1973 2	Assistant manager
F1973 3	Life advisors
F1973 4	Exectives
F1973 5	Assistant chief accountant
F1973 6	Press and external relations
F1973 7	Assistant manager - international banking
F1973 8	Personal assistant to chairman
F1973 9	Operations manager
F1973 10	Life consultants
F1973 11	Project leader -systems development
F1973 12	Insurance sales representative
F1973 13	Representatives
F1973 14	Investment negotiators
F1973 15	Sales representatives
F1974 1	International merchant banking staff
F1974 2	Financial planning & economic anlaysis planner
F1974 3	Controller
F1974 4	Credit analysts
F1974 5	Managing director
F1974 6	Manager
F1974 7	Assistant solicitor
F1974 8	Auditors
F1974 9	Credit officer
F1974 10	Assistant staff manager

F1974 11	Head of financial services
F1974 12	Executive
F1974 13	Financial director designate
F1974 14	Account controller
F1974 15	Investment analyst

Table A3 - 5 Position titles in each 1970s financial job advertisement

Code	**Position**
F2010 0001	Associate Director - Non-Traded Market Risk - 163;70k - London
F2010 0064	M&A Analyst (Globally Renowned Advisory House)
F2010 0105	Sales - Financial / Technology Vendor Background
F2010 0154	Investment Manager
F2010 0217	Solvency 2 Project Manager - IMAP
F2010 0286	M&A Analysts & Associates - Natural Resources
F2010 0321	Consultant - Commodity and Energy Risk
F2010 0384	Relationship Manager - London
F2010 0423	Private Banking Compliance Officer
F2010 0455	Technical Support Manager, eCommerce IT
F2010 0531	Recruitment Administrator
F2010 0575	Financial Services Conversion Programme – Assurance - Edinburgh, Leeds, Bristol
F2010 0647	Portfolio Analyst – Fixed Income Risk & Performance
F2010 0682	Analyst 2 - Natural Resources (Oil & Gas)
F2010 0704	Manager GBSM Data & Systems
F2010 0761	Senior Operational Risk Analyst
F2010 0817	2nd Year Analyst, TMT, Bulge Bracket Investment Bank
F2010 0868	Financial Accountant
F2010 0908	FX Electronic Trading Product Specialist
F2010 0988	Financial Controller
F2010 1032	Finance Senior Consultant

F2010 1057	Algorithmic Trading Technologist (C++ and/or Java), London - Hedge Fund Start Up
F2010 1104	Corporate Finance - Newly Qualified ACA
F2010 1182	Business Control Analyst
F2010 1230	Quantitative Researcher
F2010 1267	Risk Control Operations - Analyst
F2010 1325	Credit Operations Executive
F2010 1375	Treasury Compliance Senior Manager
F2010 1415	Global Head of Investment Banking IT Audit
F2010 1465	Project Manager - Asset Management
F2010 1516	DCM Origination
F2010 1570	Head of AML
F2010 1614	Head of New Media
F2010 1665	Fund Accountant MSFS
F2010 1736	Project Manager
F2010 1781	Quantitative Analysis Manager : Major Bank
F2010 1806	Communications Manager - Private Banking
F2010 1879	Contract Fidessa Support Analyst
F2010 1915	Project Manager-WRAP / WRAPs / Fund Supermarket - London
F2010 1976	Analyst – VP
F2010 2014	Finance Manager - Asset Management
F2010 2059	Regulatory Reporting VP
F2010 2114	Audit Executive - Reading
F2010 2166	Compliance Manager, AML Advisory Team
F2010 2228	Associate Portfolio Manager
F2010 2262	Finance Director
F2010 2303	Graduate Developer - Global Hedge Fund (C#, .Net, SQL Server)

F2010 2364	Risk Manager
F2010 2407	Business Analyst - Independant Price Verification
F2010 2473	Operations Business Analyst
F2010 2509	Associate Director - FI Cash Management
F2010 2576	Java Developer - High Frequency Electronic Brokerage - London
F2010 2617	Asset Liability Risk Manager
F2010 2658	Trade Operations Team Leader
F2010 2718	In-house consultant
F2010 2758	Fund Manager - European Investment Group - UK Equities Fund
F2010 2814	Assistant Derivatives Specialist
F2010 2860	Program Director
F2010 2926	Italian Wholesale Communication Manager
F2010 2992	Team Lead C++ Developer - Investment Bank - London

Table A3 - 6 Position titles in each 2010s financial job advertisements

APPENDIX 4: 1970S DATA CODE AND THEIR SOURCE

University job advertisements		**Financial job advertisements**	
Code	**date**	**code**	**date**
U1971 1	15/10/1971	F1971 1	07/03/1971
U1971 2	29/10/1971	F1971 2	21/03/1971
U1971 3	19/11/1971	F1971 3	11/04/1971
U1971 4	12/03/1971	F1971 4	25/04/1971
U1971 5	10/08/1971	F1971 5	09/05/1971
U1971 6	15/10/1971	F1971 6	16/05/1971
U1971 7	22/10/1971	F1971 7	06/06/1971
U1971 8	22/10/1971	F1971 8	11/07/1971
U1971 9	22/10/1971	F1971 9	28/03/1971
U1971 10	29/10/1971	F1971 10	01/08/1971
U1971 11	11/12/1971	F1971 11	28/08/1971
U1971 12	26/11/1971	F1971 12	07/11/1971
U1971 13	26/11/1971	F1971 13	14/11/1971
U1971 14	26/11/1971	F1971 14	28/11/1971
U1971 15	26/11/1971	F1971 15	05/12/1971
U1972 1	07/07/1972	F1972 1	02/07/1972
U1972 2	28/07/1972	F1972 2	09/07/1972
U1972 3	08/04/1972	F1972 3	16/07/1972
U1972 4	08/11/1972	F1972 4	16/07/1972
U1972 5	09/01/1972	F1972 5	29/10/1972
U1972 6	15/09/1972	F1972 6	29/10/1972
U1972 7	29/09/1972	F1972 7	12/11/1972

U1972 8	27/10/2012	F1972 8	19/11/1972
U1972 9	11/10/1972	F1972 9	27/02/1972
U1972 10	01/07/1972	F1972 10	05/03/1972
U1972 11	14/01/1972	F1972 11	05/03/1972
U1972 12	21/01/1972	F1972 12	05/03/1972
U1972 13	21/01/1972	F1972 13	25/06/1972
U1972 14	18/02/1972	F1972 14	18/05/1972
U1972 15	03/03/1972	F1972 15	11/05/1972
U1973 1	01/12/1973	F1973 1	25/02/1973
U1973 2	26/01/1973	F1973 2	18/02/1973
U1973 3	02/09/1973	F1973 3	29/04/1973
U1973 4	23/02/1973	F1973 4	29/04/1973
U1973 5	03/02/1973	F1973 5	13/05/1973
U1973 6	03/09/1973	F1973 6	13/05/1973
U1973 7	21/12/1973	F1973 7	20/05/1973
U1973 8	14/12/1973	F1973 8	01/07/1973
U1973 9	30/11/1973	F1973 9	01/07/1973
U1973 10	30/11/1973	F1973 10	04/11/1973
U1973 11	16/11/1973	F1973 11	04/11/1973
U1973 12	16/11/1973	F1973 12	11/11/1973
U1973 13	26/10/1973	F1973 13	25/11/1973
U1973 14	10/12/1973	F1973 14	02/09/1973
U1973 15	10/12/1973	F1973 15	13/05/1973
U1974 1	01/04/1974	F1974 1	24/02/1974
U1974 2	01/11/1974	F1974 2	10/02/1974

U1974 3	01/11/1974	F1974 3	01/12/1974
U1974 4	18/01/1974	F1974 4	03/03/1974
U1974 5	25/01/1974	F1974 5	10/03/1974
U1974 6	02/01/1974	F1974 6	19/05/1974
U1974 7	15/02/1974	F1974 7	07/07/1974
U1974 8	07/05/1974	F1974 8	14/07/1974
U1974 9	07/12/1974	F1974 9	20/10/1974
U1974 10	19/07/1974	F1974 10	20/10/1974
U1974 11	26/07/1974	F1974 11	13/10/1974
U1974 12	26/07/1974	F1974 12	13/10/1974
U1974 13	07/12/1974	F1974 13	29/12/1974
U1974 14	08/02/1974	F1974 14	15/12/1974
U1974 15	16/08/1974	F1974 15	24/02/1974

APPENDIX 5: SAMPLE MOVE CODING

This section gives a range of samples of move analysis to illustrate how the move structure is imposed in the data. Here I provide snapshots of job advertisements put the job advertisement text and in accompanying tables with move and step coding overlaid.

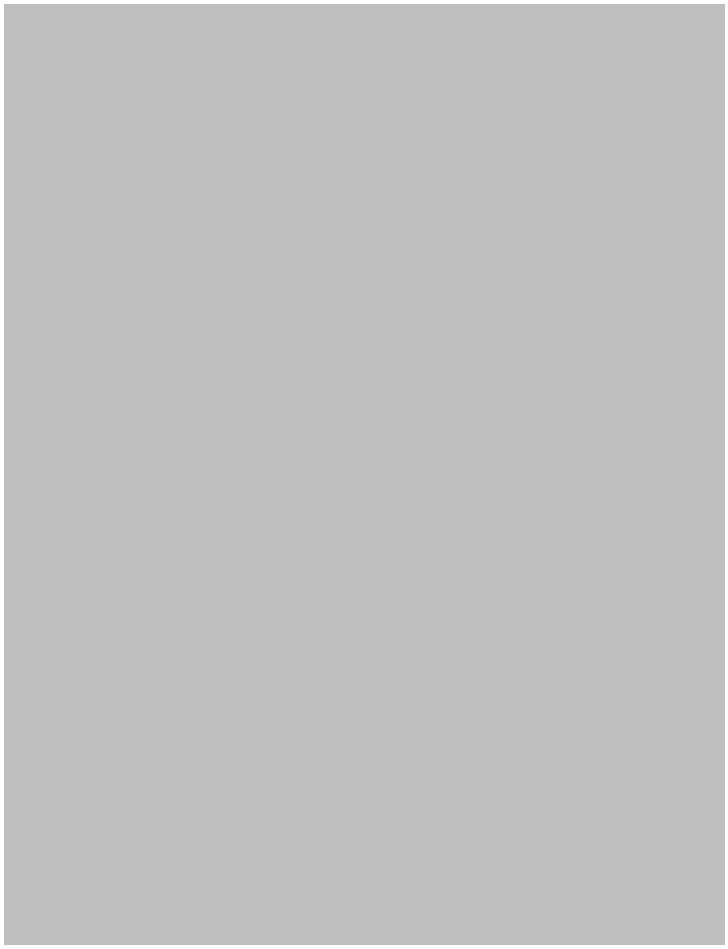
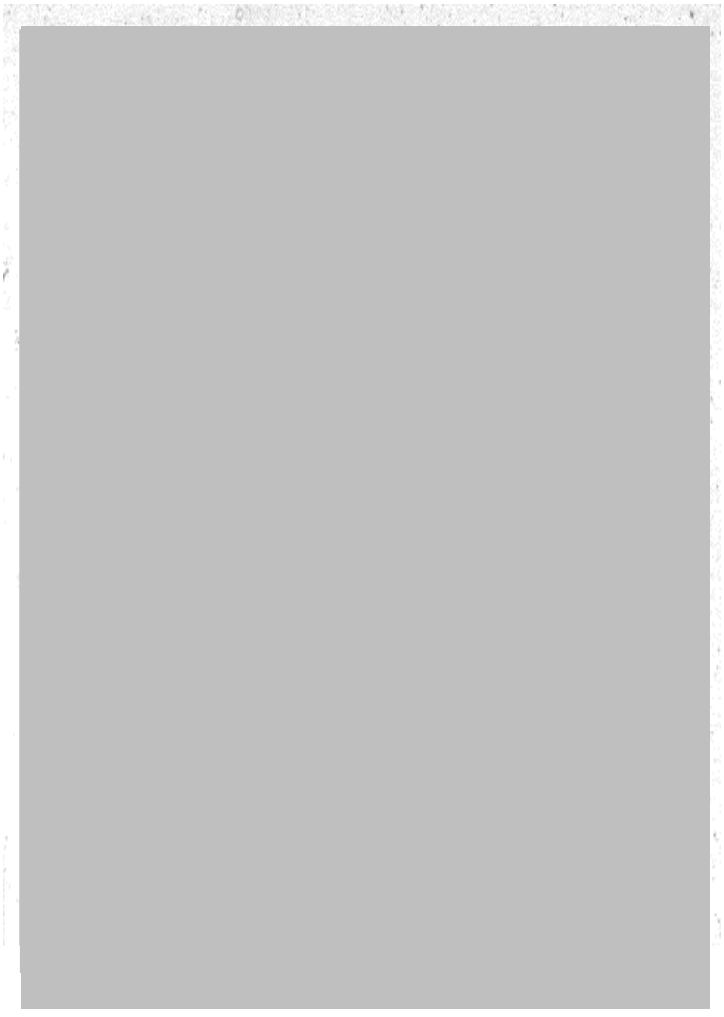


Figure A5 - 1 Actual job advertisements U1971 7

BIRMINGHAM THE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
Applications are invited for the post of LECTURER in SOIL MECHANICS and foundation engineering.	Move 2 Step 2 Inviting applications
Applicants should preferably have geotechnical experience	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
or a postgraduate qualification	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
Salary, £1,491 to £3,417 plus F.S.S.U.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Applications (three copies) naming three referees by 31st December, 1971, to Assistant Registrar (S). P.O. Box 363. Birmingham B15 2TT. From whom further particulars can be obtained. Please quote reference HV3.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 1 Move analysis of U1971 7



LEICESTER THE UNIVERSITY	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
LECTURESHIP IN ZOOLOGY	Move 2 Step 1 announcing availability
Applications are invited from men and women GRADUATES for a LECTURESHIP in the	Move 2 Step 2 Inviting applications
DEPARTMENT of ZOOLOGY in the School of Biological Sciences.	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
Preference will be given to applicants with research interests in the fields of cell/developmental biology, terrestrial/fresh water ecology or comparative physiology.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
Salary according to qualifications and experience on scale £1,491 to £3,417 a year, plus F.S.S.U. membership.	Move 5 Step 1 remuneration
Further particulars from the Registrar, to whom applications should be sent by 3rd November.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 2 Move analysis of U1971 8

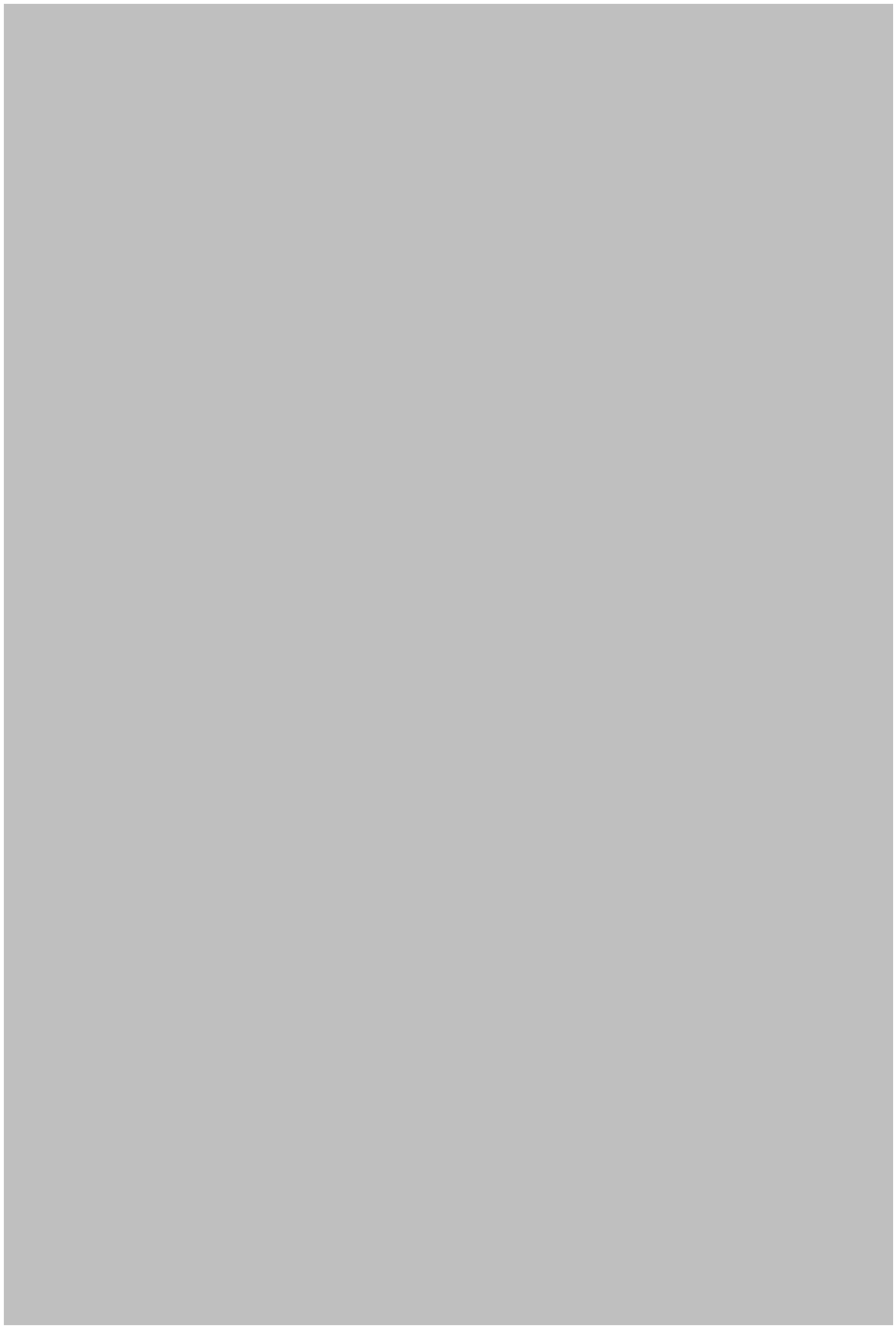


Figure A5 - 3 Actual job advertisements U1974 2

SENIOR ADMINISTRATOR	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
UP TO £4,730 p.a.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Responsible to Academic Registrar for administration in the Faculties of Science and Engineering at the University of London. Duties will include servicing committees; maintaining effective links with academic and administrative staff at Schools of the University and with other departments of the Central Offices; preparation of reports and recommendations.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
Applicants must be graduates	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
and have had administrative experience (preferably in a university), including acting as secretary to committees.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
Starting salary, according to experience, on scale £3,378-£4,548 plus £162 London Allowance; 6 weeks leave; superannuation under FSSU.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Further particulars and application form from Michael Root, Personnel Officer, University of London Senate House, London WC1E 7HU. Tel. 01-636 8000 Ext. 129. Closing date for applications 31 January, 1974.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 3 Move analysis of U1974 2

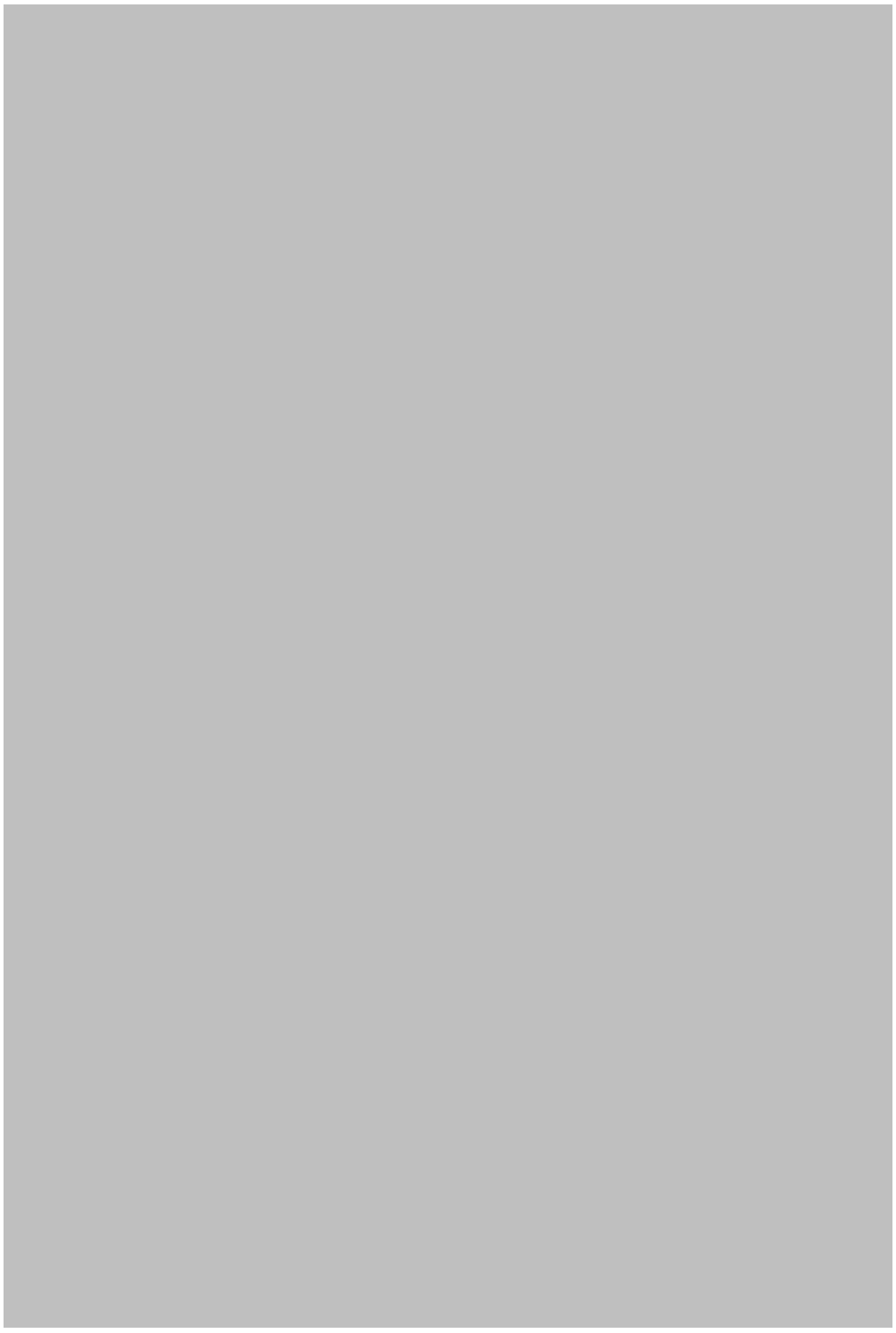


Figure A5 - 4 Actual job advertisements F1971 9

BANK ADMINISTRATION	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
c. £6,000	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
For the established London branch of an international bank.	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
He will be responsible for supervising day-to-day operations of the bank.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
Candidates, aged 30-40,	Move 4 Step 5 Demographic specifications
must have a background in banking which contains a large element of international dealings together with a proven record of administrative ability.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
Salary is negotiable and will not necessarily be a limiting factor.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Write in confidence, quoting reference T1198/Y, to T.L. Evans, Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Co., Suite 401, Second Floor, Salisbury House, Finsbury Circus, London, EC2M 5UR.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 4 Move analysis of F1971 9

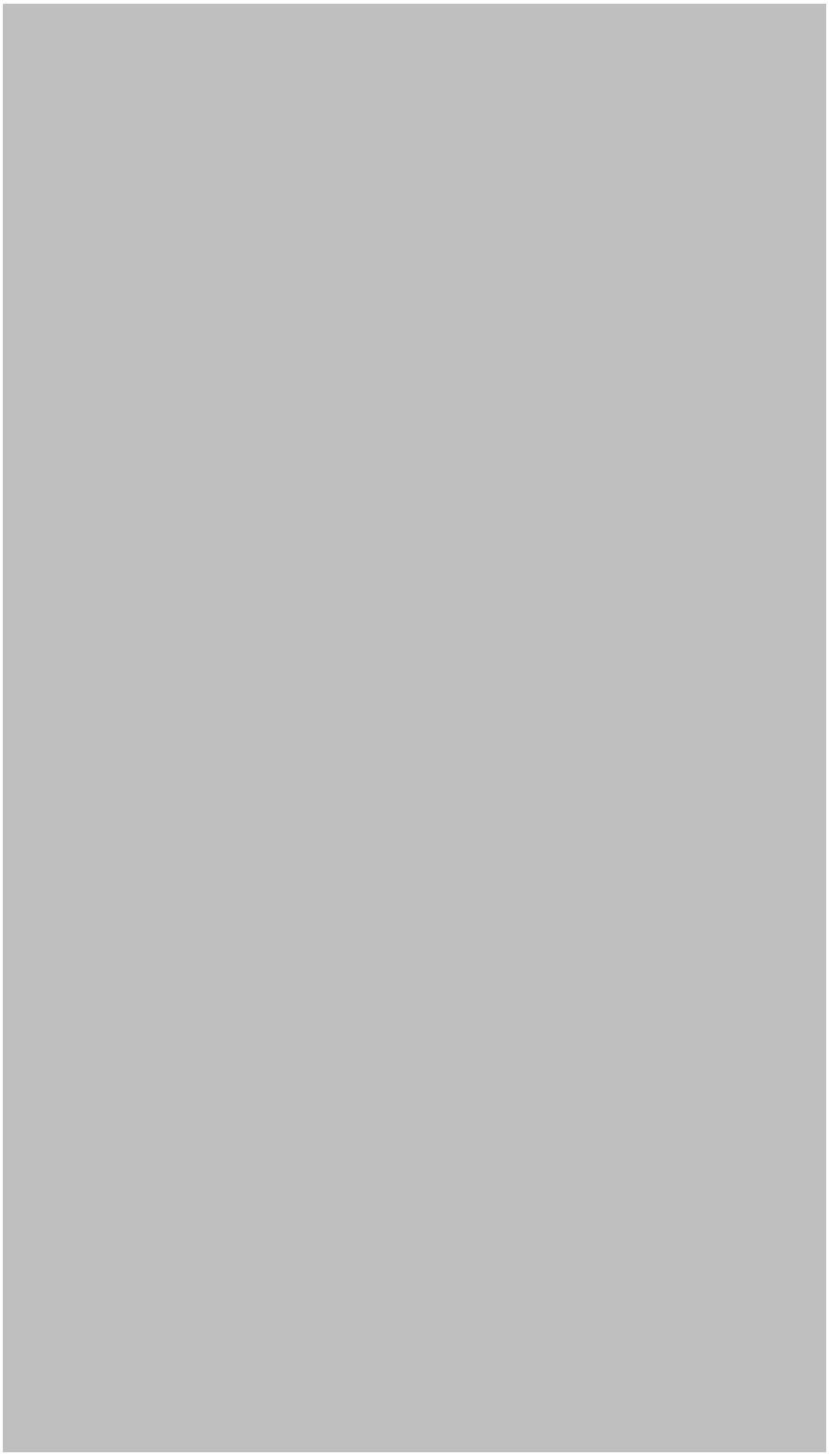


Figure A5 - 5 Actual job advertisement F1972 2

Legal Adviser	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
Banking - £6,000+	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Our Clients are a London Clearing Bank with merchant banking business and strong overseas connections. The Bank is expending its services in the U.K. and abroad.	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
The position is as assistant to the Legal Adviser, but with direct responsibility for giving advice on all aspects of the bank's business with particular emphasis on corporate lending, the development of future services, and changes in the law.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
He will be a Barrister or Solicitor	Move 4 Step 4 Legal requirements
with an English qualification and a wide knowledge of banking or finance.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
He will have a well developed commercial sense enabling him to give quick positive practical advice on all types of problem arising in the business.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
The ability to work under pressure is mandatory.	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
Knowledge of corporate taxation, leasing, and trustee work would be valuable.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
Age: 30 to 40 plus	Move 4 Step 5 Demographic specifications
Location: City of London	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
Salary: By negotiation up to £6,000 plus According to age and experience. Pension Scheme and other substantial benefits.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Apply in strict confidence to : CHARLES MARTIN ASSOCIATES LIMITED. (Executive Selection. Flef: ST272).23 College Hill, London, EC4, giving precise summary of career including responsibilities held and salaries commanded. Short listed candidates will be notified within 14 days. CHARLES MARTIN	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 5 Move analysis of F1972 2

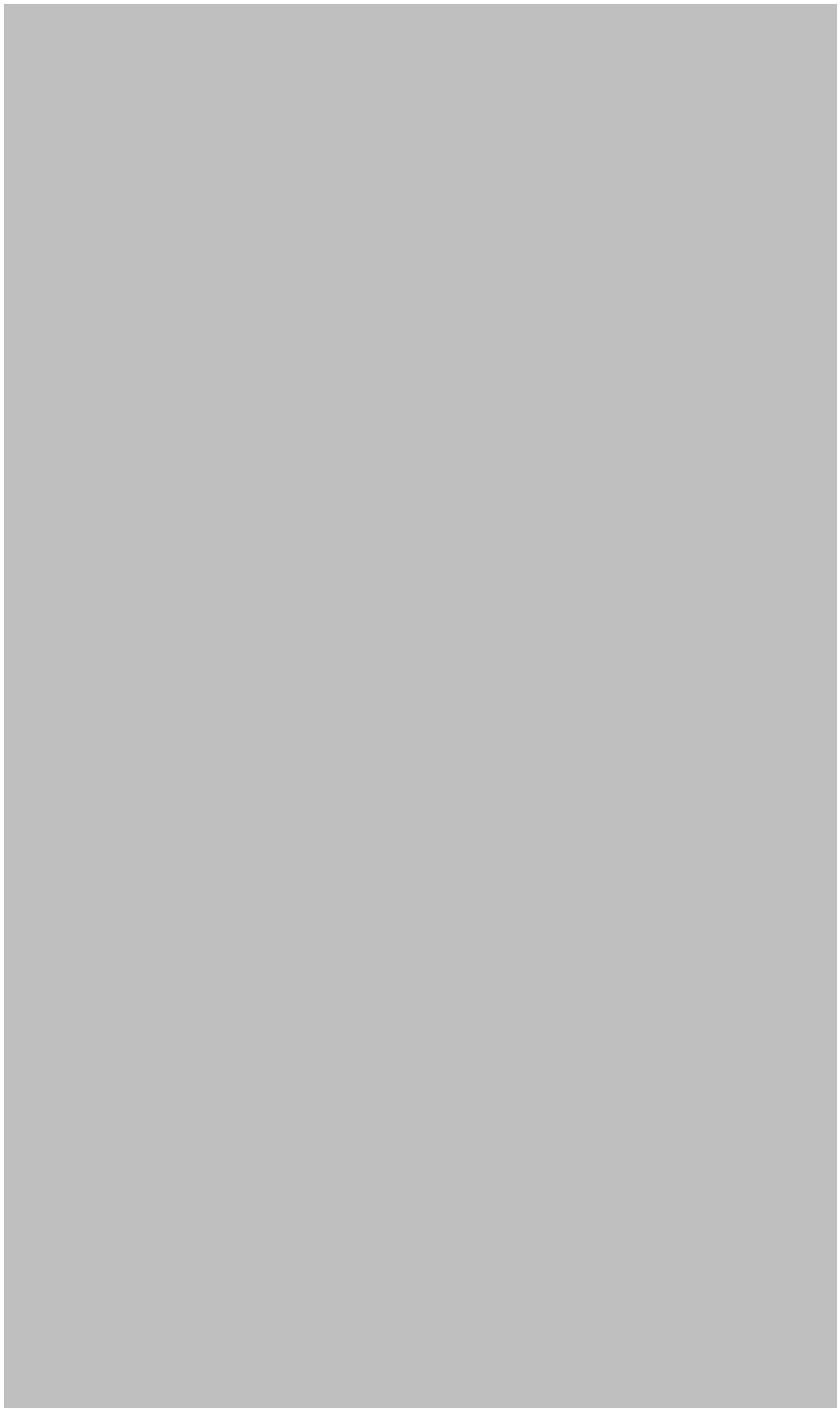


Figure A5 - 6 Actual job advertisement F1972 9

Nationwide **Building Society**	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
Britain's third largest Building Society	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
is seeking a **MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTANT**	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
In its Finance Department, Head Office, London.	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
The successful applicant will be a qualified accountant,	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
aged 25 to 30 years	Move 4 Step 5 Demographic specification
with industrial or commercial experience in costing, budgeting and financial investigations.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
He will be a self-starter who is able to make a real contribution to the financial management of the Society	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
which is expanding rapidly and which has total assets approaching £1,000m.	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
Commencing salary will be in the region of £3,500.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Applications giving age, education, qualifications, experience, particularly in the areas detailed above, and present salary should be sent, by 31 January, to: The Assistant General Manager (Personnel), Nationwide Building Society, New Oxford House, High Holborn, London, WCIV 6PW.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 6 Move analysis of F1972 9

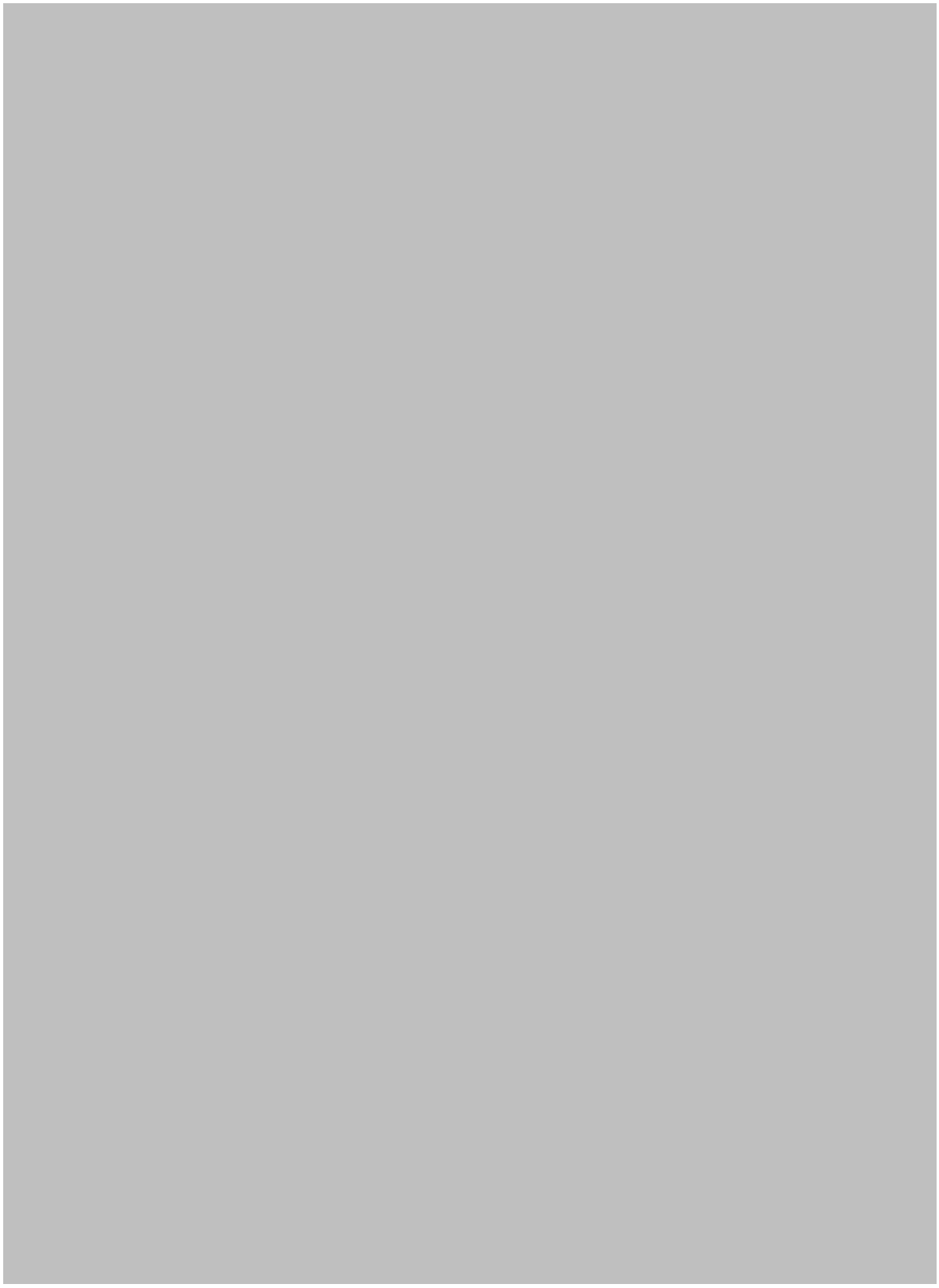


Figure A5 - 7 Actual job advertisements U2010s 1/357

Lecturer/Senior Lecturer in Finance	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
Cranfield University School of Management	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying work location
Salary in the range £38,000 - £48,000 per annum, depending on experience	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Cranfield School of Management has long been recognised as a leading centre of excellence for research and teaching in Finance and Accounting. MSc in Finance and Management programme being run by the finance group has recently been ranked as the 5th best in the UK and 18th globally by the Financial Times. The school has excellent research resources with a range of databases including Bloomberg. The school actively supports participation in international conferences, supervision of PhDs via bursaries, and networking opportunities with business.	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
We are now looking to appoint a Lecturer or Senior Lecturer in Finance.	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
The main requirements for the position are a passion for teaching and evidence and potential of high quality research in finance.	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
The core duties will include research and teaching as follows: **Research:** Conduct research in finance and make intellectual contributions including publication in journals of high academic impact, journals of excellent professional standing and output to the mass media. **Teaching:** Teach on the MBA, MSc Finance and Management, and contribute to executive education programmes including design and development of teaching material in finance.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
Qualifications and experience The successful applicant will hold a doctoral degree	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
and will have a track record in teaching and evidence of high quality research.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
A recognised teaching qualification will also normally be held, but if not, successful applicants MUST enrol on a Cranfield-run course to gain a Post Graduate Certificate in Teaching Learning and	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
Development Industrial and/or international experience would be an advantage.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience

In return, we offer a competitive salary, depending on experience and academic achievement, as well as an attractive pension scheme, generous holidays and pleasant working environment.	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
For an informal discussion and further details about these positions, please contact Professor Sunil Poshakwale: sunil.poshakwale@cranfield.ac.uk, For further information about Cranfield School of Management, please visit our website at: www.som.cranfield.ac.uk. Application forms and further details are available from the HR Department, Cranfield School of Management, Cranfield, Bedford MK43 0AL. Telephone 01234 754838 or e-mailhrsom@cranfield.ac.uk. Alternatively visit our website www.cranfield.ac.uk/hr to apply electronically. **When applying, please quote reference: Z/1116** **Closing date for applications**: **31 August 2011** Interviews will be held during the last week in September 2011	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 7 Move analysis of U2010s 1/357

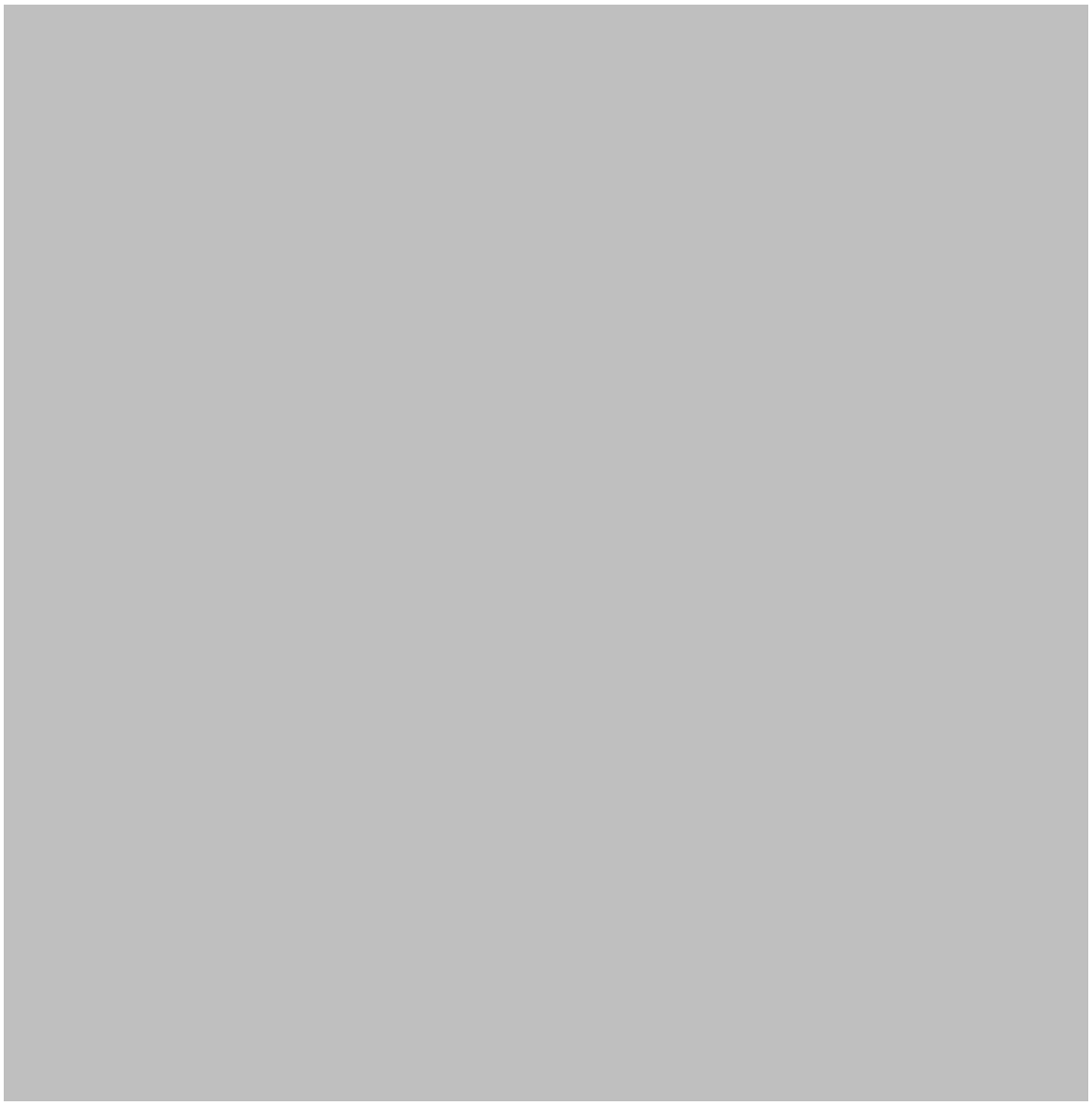


Figure A5 - 8 Actual job advertisements U2010s 4/14

Three Lectureships in Phychology [sic]	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
University of Edinburgh - College of Humanities and Social Science, School of Philosophy, Psychology and Language Science	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
The University of Edinburgh, home to one of the leading Psychology Departments in the UK,	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
seeks to appoint 3 permanent, full time lecturers in Psychology to contribute to the development of Cognitive Science within the School of Philosophy, Psychology and Language Sciences.	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
The successful applicants will have an international profile in aspects of cognitive psychology broadly defined, and will have a track record of high-impact publications since completing their Ph.D.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
Tenable from 1 January 2012.	Move 3 Step 4 Contract information
Salary Scale: £36,862 - £44,016	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Please quote vacancy reference: 3014743JW **Closing Date:** 09 September 2011 For further particulars https://www.jobs.ed.ac.uk/vacancies/index.cfm?fuseaction=vacancies.detail&vacancy_ref=3014743 and an application pack visit our website (www.jobs.ed.ac.uk) or telephone the recruitment line on 0131 650 2511.	Move 6 Soliciting a response

Table A5 - 8 Move analysis of U2010s 4/14

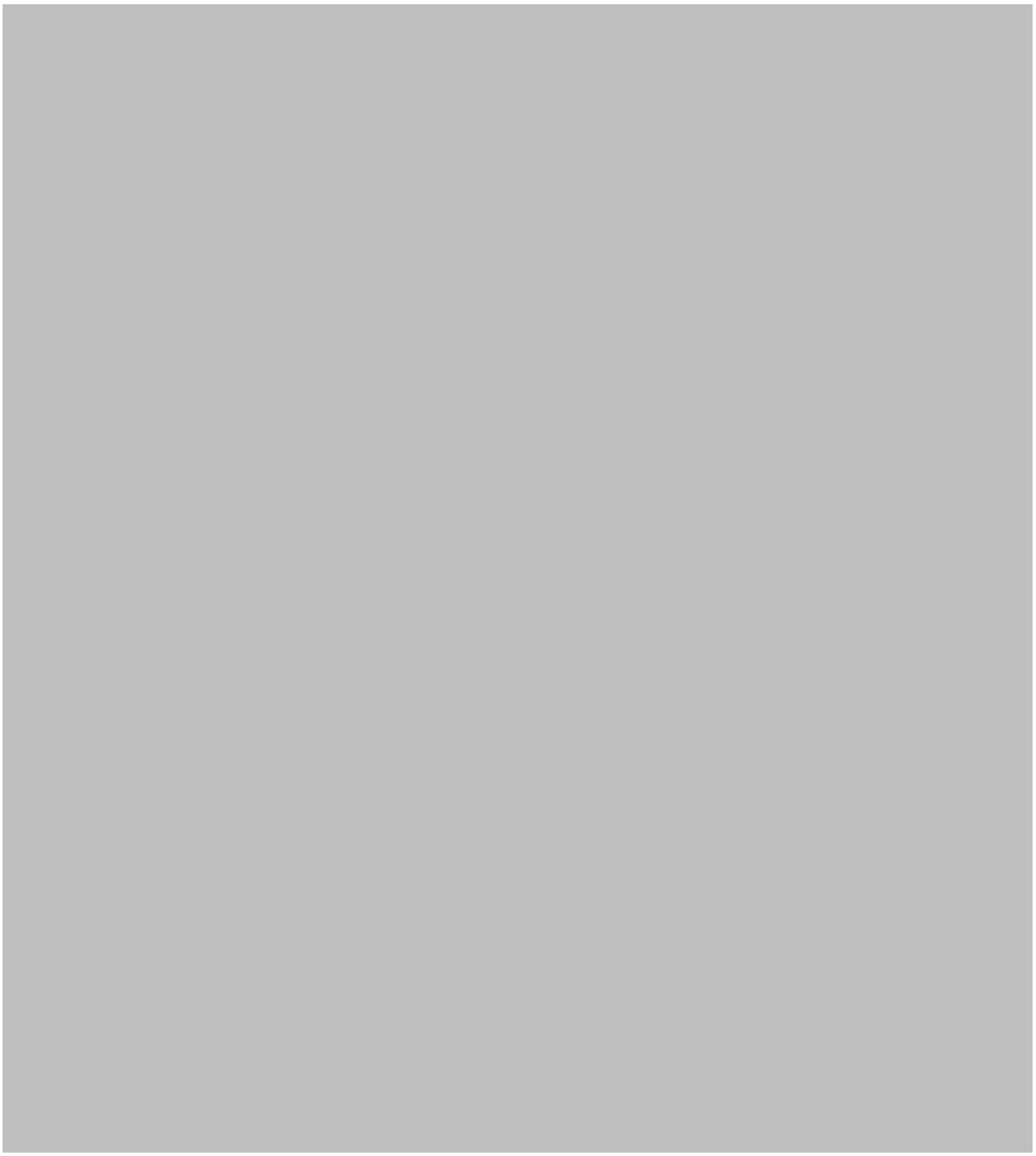


Figure A5 - 9 Actual job advertisements U2010s 4/432

Teaching Fellow in Plant Biology and Biodiversity	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
University of Bath - Department of Biology and Biochemistry	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
(fixed term for 10 months)	Move 3 Step 4 Contract information
Salary: £29,972 to £35,788	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
Closing Date: Wednesday 24 August 2011 **Interview Date: To be confirmed** **Reference: JK668**	Move 6 Soliciting a response
You will plan and deliver lectures and practical classes to undergraduate and masters courses on plant biodiversity in the Department of Biology and Biochemistry. There may also be a requirement to run tutorial classes and supervise student projects. You will assess these courses and attend departmental meetings and boards to monitor teaching and student-related issues through the year.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
Ideally you will have or will soon obtain a PhD in Plant Biology or Biodiversity.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
This is primarily a teaching position and some teaching experience to undergraduates is expected, although candidates with relevant research interests are encouraged to apply.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
For further information please contact Dr Richard Hooley (bssrah@bath.ac.uk) or Dr Chris Todd (c.m.todd@bath.ac.uk) , however please ensure that your application is submitted through the University of Bath website.	Move 6 Soliciting a response
In addition to the Application form, please submit a concise statement of any teaching experience and research interests of approximately 500 words.	Move 4 Step 6 Procedural requirements

Table A5 - 9 Move analysis of U2010s 4/432

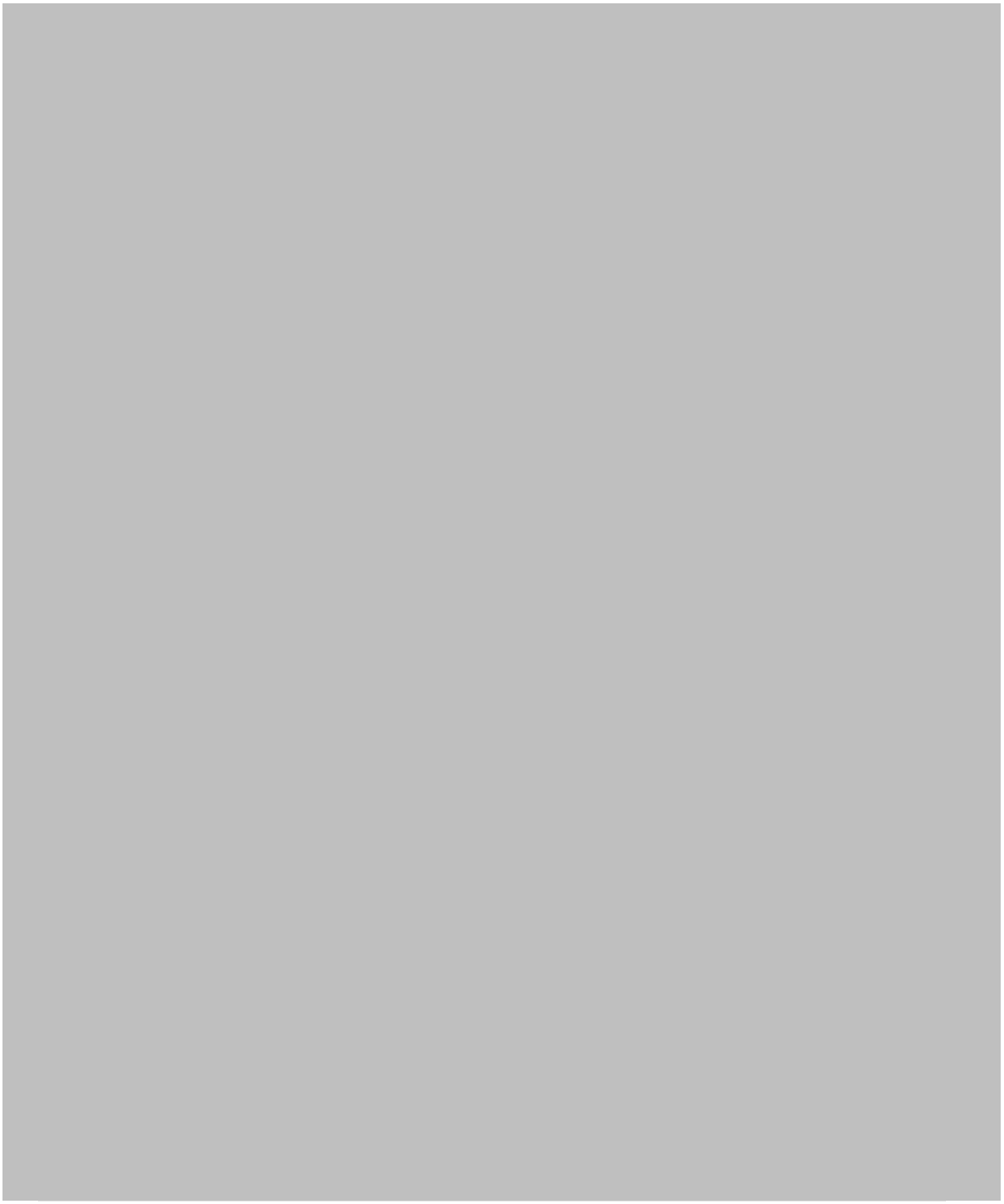
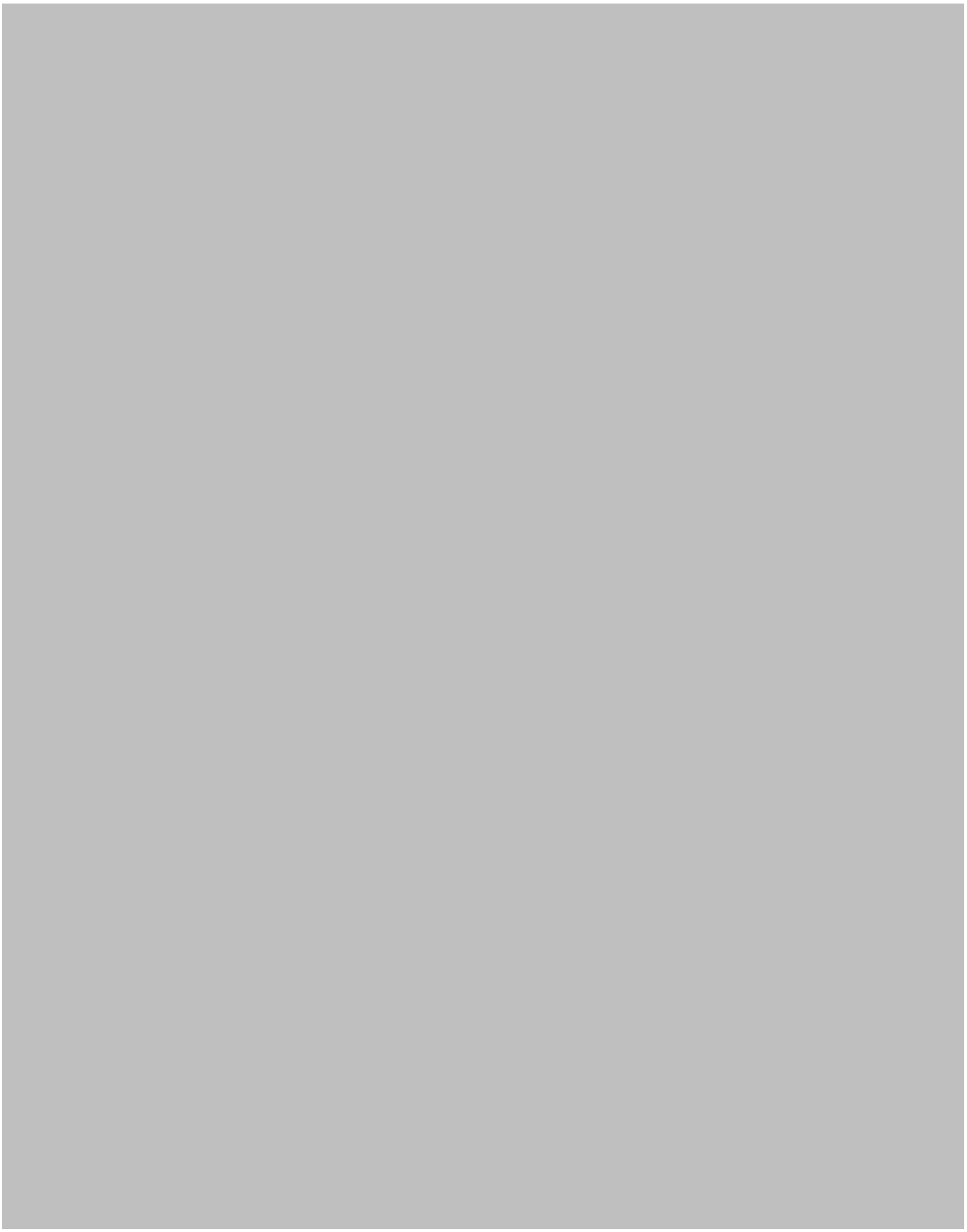


Figure A5 - 10 Actual job advertisement F2010 1516

DCM Origination	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
• Company Michael Page Financial Services • Location UK-London	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
• Remuneration £50k to £175k	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
• Position Type Permanent • Employment type Full time	Move 3 Step 4 Contract information
• Updated 30-Nov-2010 • eFC Ref no 717652 • **Apply online** • **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move
Our client is a well-respected Investment Bank	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
and is building a DCM franchise in London to cover the EMEA area across Corporates, Financial Institutions and SSAs.	Move 1 Step 2 Publicizing the organization's missions and policies
Our client is a well-respected Investment Bank	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
and is building a DCM franchise in London to cover the EMEA area across Corporates, Financial Institutions and SSAs.	Move 1 Step 2 Publicizing the organization's missions and policies
They are looking for VP/Director level candidates as well as some at Associate Level	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
to originate business across the UK, France, Germany, Nordics as well as emerging markets including CEE, Africa and the Middle East. The role will include the following: •The identification,origination and structuring of new DCM business. • Leading pitches.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope

• Overseeing the due diligence / credit analysis process. • Execution of DCM mandates.	
We are looking for candidates with a relevant track record from within the DCM arena. The ideal candidate will have cross sector exposure across a number of geographical areas. •Investment banking experience, preferable within DCM, ECM or similar area	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
•Strong financial background and knowledge of the international bond market. •Able to develop an understanding of derivatives and structured products.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
• Excellent interpersonal skills and the ability to present to external clients	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
•European languages are seen as an advantage.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
• **Apply online** • **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move

Table A5 - 10 Move analysis of F2010 1516



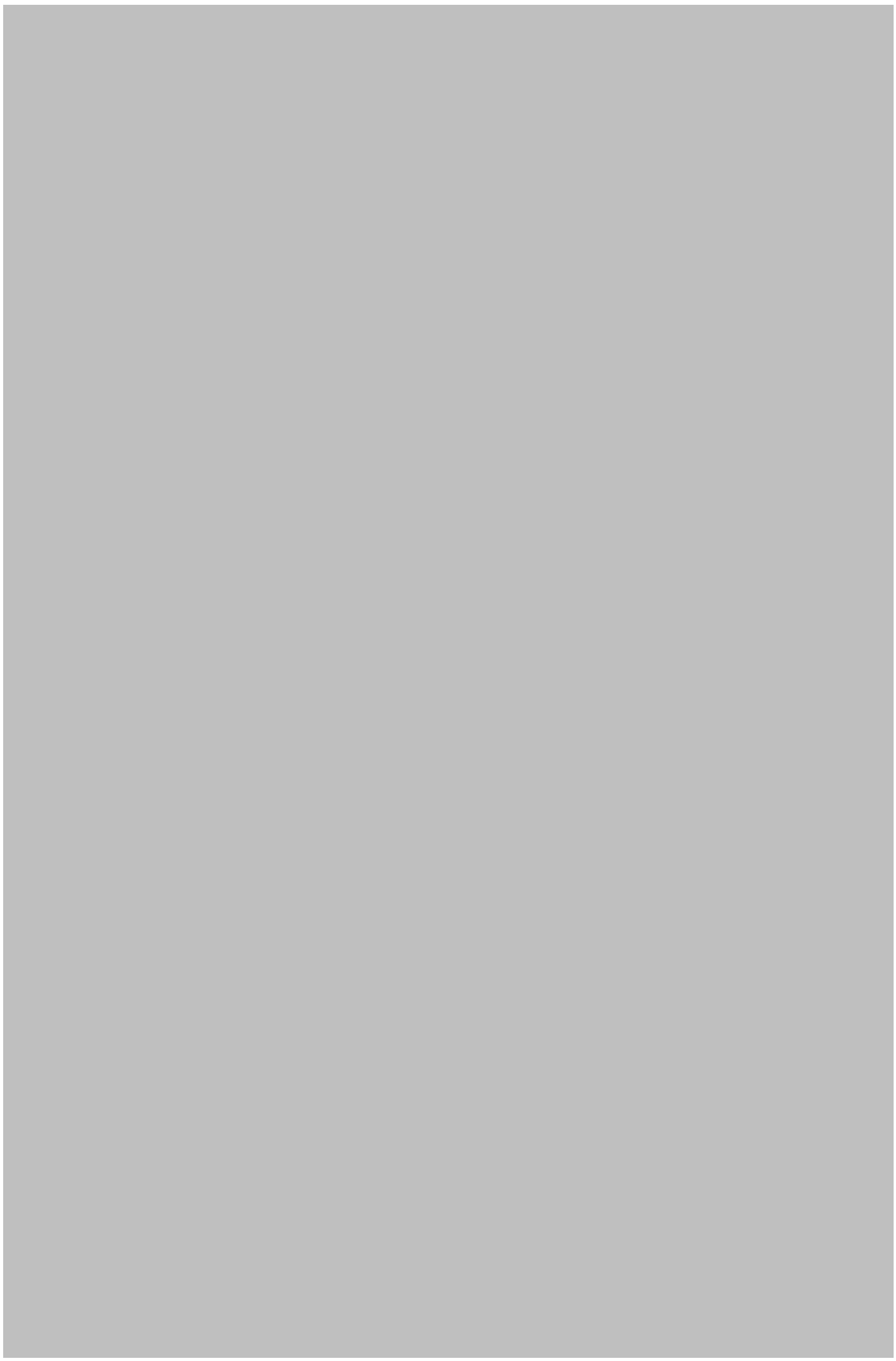


Figure A5 - 11 Actual job advertisements F2010s 2617

Asset Liability Risk Manager	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
• Company Santander • Location UK-London	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
• Remuneration 80,000 – 95,000 + excellent benefits	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
• Position Type Permanent • Employment type Full time	Move 3 Step 4 Contract information
• Updated 30-Nov-2010 • eFC Ref no 723690 • **Apply online** • **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move
This role is to lead the ALM risk team. This team covers the non-traded market risks on Santander UK's balance sheet and provides risk reporting, analysis and challenge to internal departments and senior management. **Asset Liability Risk Manager**	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the workscope
As one of the UK's leading financial services Santander offers a comprehensive range of financial products and a high standard of service to 24 million customers. We are part of one of the world's largest banks - Grupo Santander, which means we're stronger than ever and looking to the future with confidence.	Move 1 Step 2 Publicizing the organization's missions and policies
This role is to lead the ALM risk team. This team covers the non-traded market risks on Santander UK's balance sheet and provides risk reporting, analysis and challenge to internal departments and senior management.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
We are currently looking to hire an Asset Liability Risk Manager,	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
to manage, motivate and lead a team of six market risk analysts. This is a high-profile role, where you will need to demonstrate your stakeholder management skills by creating working partnerships and achieving buy-in with key business areas both within Santander UK and the Group more widely.	Move3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
As an Asset Liability Risk Manager your skills and qualifications will ideally include: • Degree in a quantitative subject (e.g. Economics, Maths) and exceptional attention to detail • Strong working knowledge and	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or educational requirements
experience of non-traded market risks within a retail bank, and the mechanisms used to manage and mitigate them.	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience

• Experience of market risk measurement techniques (VaR, sensitivities, economic capital)	
• Good working knowledge of Excel and PowerPoint. • Proven ability to explain complex issues to both a technical and non-technical audience	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or educational requirement
• Management experience	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
• Corporate Banking knowledge will be highly beneficial	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or educational requirements
Santander UK At Santander our goal is to become the best retail bank in the UK. Since 2004 we have acquired the Abbey National plc, Alliance & Leicester and the Bradford & Bingley to become part of the Santander Group's operations in the UK.	Move 1 Step 2 Publicizing the organization's missions and policies
We now operate under the brand name of Santander and our customers can use any of Santander's 1,300 branches throughout the UK. Santander in the UK is in a very strong position and continues to gain momentum. We are committed to offering a better service for all our customers as well as innovative, great value products – after all we know that the happier our customers are, the more likely they are to continue to bank with us.	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
As an Asset Liability Risk Manager your main responsibilities will involve: • With your team, you will deliver accurate, timely and complete ALM risk reporting. You will ensure that processes and procedures are adequately documented, and develop and deliver system changes and improvements as required. • You will provide technical ALM risk leadership to the wider Risk team as a subject matter expert. This will involve providing technical support and advice to team members, especially when tackling new and previously unsolved problems or issues. You will also couple your technical expertise with your strong business knowledge to help the team turn technical output into sound business information and policy. • For your team, you will provide clear direction on priorities, set guidelines and objectives within the PDP structure and ensure appropriate training and development is delivered to team members.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
What we will be looking for in you: Since you will be liaising with internal and external stakeholders extensively, you will need to demonstrate fantastic communication and presentation skills. Also, to be successful in this role you will need to be actively seeking ways to share your knowledge and use your aptitude to help develop a robust reporting and data infrastructure.	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
Santander welcomes applications from all sections of the community.	Move 7 Legal issues
• **Apply online**	

• **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move

Table A5 - 11 Move analysis of F2010s 2617

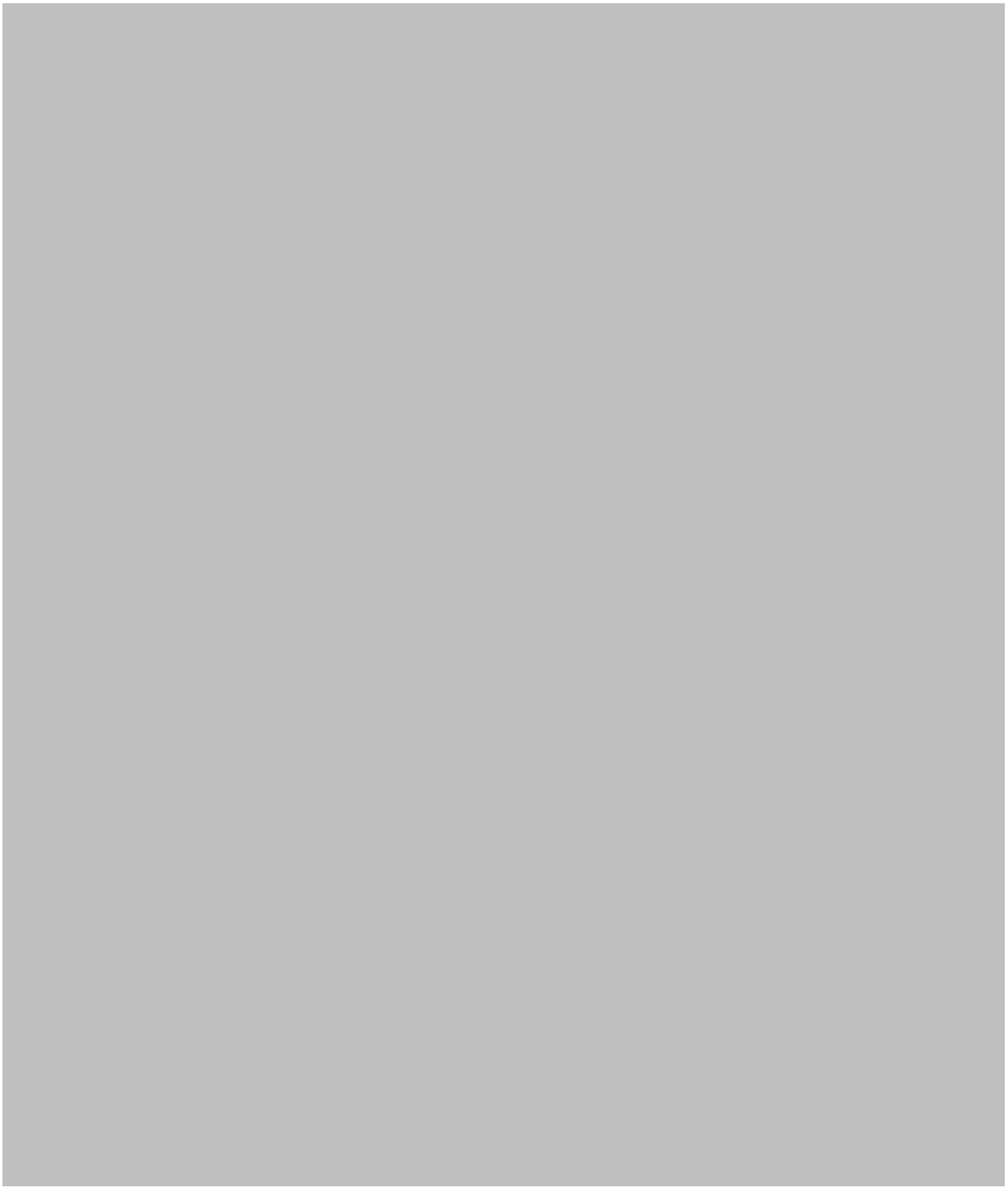


Figure A5 - 12 Actual job advertisements F2010 2926

Italian Wholesale Communication Manager	Move 2 Step 1 Announcing availability
• Company The Emerald Group • Location UK-London	Move 3 Step 2 Specifying the work location
• Remuneration Market Rate	Move 5 Step 1 Remuneration
• Position Type Permanent • Employment type Full time	Move 3 Step 4 Contract information
• Updated 30-Nov-2010 • eFC Ref no 724753 • **Apply online** • **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move
One of the worlds [sic] most prestigious investment management firm	Move 1 Step 1 Announcing the organization's achievements
is looking to hire a communications manager.	Move 2 Step 3 Announcing a search
As a wholesale communication manager you will be responsible for the smooth delivery of information and content with the companies products to the multiple distributors that they have in Italy. The job will have both an internal aspect ie dealing with the companies managers in charge of the various relationships to help them in a supporting role and with the various areas that deal with Mutual funds. The responsibilities will also include direct interaction with clients to ensure timely provision of data or other needed information.	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the work scope
This job requires both a person attentive to detail and also one that can be entrepreneurial in dealing with the requests deriving from a fast growing business. Over time this job will lead to direct sales responsibilities.	Move 4 Step 3 Required attributes
The ideal candidate will have 3/5 years experience of supporting a busy sales team, (better if focused on Italian retail market),	Move 4 Step 2 Work experience
with a good working knowledge and thorough understanding of investment management.	Move 4 Step 1 Knowledge or education requirements
You will be tasked with assisting in the preparation of presentations and associated marketing materials, ensuring that sales and client activity is tracked and up to date and other responsibilities which	Move 3 Step 1 Describing the

contribute to the successful running of a busy sales team. • Oversight of client reporting and campaign management. • Management of client take-on, transitions and on-going management and administration. • Supporting the sales team with in the preparation of marketing materials and responding to client requests for information. **Responsibilities** Client facing/Internal User group interaction • Ensure that all internal client and internal user group requests are dealt with in a timely and professional manner to ensure smooth running, "a-class" service at all times • Support regular and clear communication with the internal client and internal user groups regarding project status and advise of any changes to scope, cost or schedules - ensuring full client buy-in and approval as necessary • Ownership of Product updates for the Italian market • Leadership of production of all internal material that will be translated for the Italian market as well as dealing with 'ad-hoc' Client materials. • Support production and maintenance of marketing and client service presentations in Italian, tailored to a retail audience • Work closely with Communicatione and Marketing Group to ensure that Italian website is up to date	work scope
• **Apply online** • **Save this job** • **Send to friend** • **Print this job**	Website format not considered a move

Table A5 - 12 Move analysis of F2010 2926

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